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## Editor's Page

ROY WINTHROP HATCH

THE field of social studies lost a colorful figure with the death, on September 10, 1955, of Roy W. Hatch. A native of Marshfield, Massachusetts (associated with Daniel Webster), a graduate of Dartmouth College in 1902, Mr. Hatch taught history and civics in Massachusetts high schools from 1902 to 1918. For the next nine years he taught the same fields at the Horace Mann (Girls High) School and lectured in civic education at Teachers College. He was a graduate student at Harvard and Columbia. His terminal sixteen-year post was the headship of social studies at the New Jersey State Teachers College at Upper Montclair.

A proponent of active and participating citizenship in classroom, school, and college, Mr. Hatch adopted, applied, wrote about, and lectured about the project method, the socialized

recitation, and effective school citizenship. Brimming with enthusiasm, glowing with personality, he was a popular figure on convention platforms—often shared with a demonstration class—for many years. In collaboration with the late De Forest Stull, Mr. Hatch was author of the fused geography-history textbook series "Our World Today." He also wrote other books.

Mr. Hatch was long active in the Middle States Association of History and Social Studies Teachers, and in the National Council for the Social Studies. In these institutions, as elsewhere, he left enduring impressions of his faith in American institutions, his loyalty to friends and old associations, his admiration for Lincoln, and his genius for human relations and for sparking the enthusiasm and energies of students and colleagues.—ERLING M. HUNT

### THE HEART OF THE MATTER

ROY W. HATCH was one of the most colorful personalities to grace a social studies classroom in our time and, perhaps for this reason more than any other, one of the most influential. First, last, and always a showman in the true meaning of the term (Webster: "showman: one who is adept at exhibiting things to advantage."), he possessed—and cultivated—the rare gift of breathing life into people and places remote in time and space. There were no walls to his classroom—or classrooms, for he traveled widely and wherever he traveled he taught—no walls, not at least in a figurative sense; only doors through which one followed him out into the exciting world of people, which is the social studies at their best.

Optimism, exuberance, energy (his step had a spring to it, and his eyes a sparkle, even when he was tired), a positive outlook on life—these are the characteristics that come immediately to mind when one recalls Roy W. Hatch. In his life and his work, he set an example for all of us, an example that we will do well to follow as we move into the troubled years that surely confront us.

But we didn't start to write a tribute: Erling M. Hunt has done that most effectively in the

statement that appears above. Our present remarks were prompted by a recent article by Arnold Toynbee in *The Saturday Review* (January 7, 1956), in which historian Toynbee stressed the desperate need for positive, constructive thinking, and for optimism and hope and faith in Man in these our times. We need—if we may for a moment translate Mr. Toynbee's remarks into more particularized terms—men and women, and most especially social studies teachers, with the spirit and vision of Roy W. Hatch.

The substance of Toynbee's remarks was that Man in mid-twentieth century has only two possible futures: "mass suicide," or "learning how to live together as a single family." To be sure, he had a lot more to say, and all to the point, but this was the heart of the matter.

"The historians can emphasize past divergencies . . .," he wrote, "or, alternatively, they can emphasize present convergences . . . which ought to be fostered and promoted. . . ."

Roy W. Hatch saw the "convergences," the relationships, the humanity in which all civilized life is rooted. His was the power of positive thinking. This, says Toynbee, is the only power that will lead Man out of his present confusion and into a happier way of life.—LEWIS PAUL TODD

# The Hazards of Prosperity

Ralph B. Price

WE ALL like to have our fortunes told occasionally. An optimistic fortune teller can do much for our morale. Recently two books<sup>1</sup> have been published looking at our economy past and future. These studies are worth thoughtful consideration at this time, for the future may be here faster than we anticipate. America is now at her greatest peak of economic activity and welfare. The average American lives better today than he ever dreamed 15 years ago, and compared to two-thirds of his fellow beings who inhabit this small planet he lives in fantastic, unbelievable wealth and splendor. Furthermore, prosperity is enjoyed not only by Americans; Europeans also have progressively increased living standards in recent years and are now enjoying a period of prosperity. Unfortunately this is not also true of hundreds of millions of people in the Middle Eastern and Asian countries. But what of the future?

## 1929 IN RETROSPECT

First, it is time to cast a retrospective view at 1929 to remind ourselves that history can provide a lesson. As J. K. Galbraith says in his book, *The Great Crash, 1929*, "Some years, like some poets and politicians and some lovely women, are singled out for fame beyond the common lot, and 1929 was clearly such a year. Like 1066, 1776, and 1914, it is a year that everyone remembers" (p. 1). What happened in that year causes us to read market statistics today with at least restrained optimism. Galbraith recaptures the spirit and psychology of the months and events that led up to that fateful "black Thursday,"

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"Those of us who have noted European college youth riding bicycles long distances to classes and our own driving cars from dormitory to classroom have pondered the future," the author writes. "We are left with the feeling that today's economic problems, while still great, in the future may not be the greatest of those facing us."

Dr. Price is a Professor of Economics and Head of the Department of Economics and Business Administration of Western Maryland College at Westminster.

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October 24, 1929, when nearly 13 million shares of stock changed hands on the New York Stock Exchange "... at prices which shattered the dreams and the hopes of those who had owned them" (p. 104).

A mere 11 months previously the future had appeared to President Coolidge as unbelievably optimistic when he told Congress: "No Congress of the United States ever assembled, on surveying the state of the Union, has met with a more pleasing prospect than that which appears at the present time. In the domestic field there is tranquility and contentment . . . and the highest record of years of prosperity" (p. 6). Black Thursday became the symbol of this frightful speculative crash although the days which followed were worse; one might say it opened a new era in American history—a tragic era—and the obliteration of the boundless prosperity which the President foresaw in December, 1928. This last great boom in American history was feeding on itself even at that time, i.e., prices depended upon further rises in prices and thus became unstable, and when the structure crumbled the psychological impact upon business was devastating. By 1933 the national income had dropped to less than half what it had been in 1929 and the country was close to social revolution.

Now we are living under another boom period. Thanks to Galbraith we have had a timely recounting of lessons of those fantastic days—lessons which should never be forgotten. He expresses this hope in his first chapter when he says that

... a good knowledge of what happened in 1929 remains our best safeguard against the recurrence of the more unhappy events of those days. Since 1929 we have enacted numerous laws designed to make securities speculation more honest and, it is hoped, more readily restrained. None of these is a perfect safeguard. The signal feature of the mass escape from reality that occurred in 1929 and before . . . was that it carried Authority with it. . . .

The wonder, indeed, is that since 1929 we have been spared so long. One reason without doubt, is that the

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<sup>1</sup>J. K. Galbraith. *The Great Crash, 1929*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1955. 201 p. \$3; Philip Wernette. *The Future of American Prosperity*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1955. 257 p. \$3.50.



experience of 1929 burned itself so deeply into the national consciousness. It is worth hoping that a history such as this will keep bright that immunizing memory for a little longer (pp. 4-5).

#### ECONOMIC STABILITY AND WORLD LEADERSHIP

But the depression of the 1930's was more than the result of a stock-market crash, although the crash was the beginning of that long and tortuous trail; and preventing a depression requires more than preventing a stock market crash. Fortunately the study of the intricacies of business fluctuations and the requisites for economic equilibrium has added much to the body of economic theory which existed in 1929, e.g., what public policies can contribute to the maintenance of economic stability in a dynamic private-enterprise economy. Therefore, it is highly unlikely that this nation will in the foreseeable future go through a deep depression comparable to that of the 1930's. Our accumulated experience, our present laws, and the modest growth of knowledge of economics have provided us with sufficient wisdom to achieve relative stability. This does not mean that minor business recessions have or will be eliminated, but provided we escape war and utilize our knowledge of economics, the foreseeable future is optimistic. This is the view of Philip Wernette in his new book, *The Future of American Prosperity*.

We dare not fail to achieve a stable economy. If another deep depression did not immediately destroy us, it would certainly destroy our allies. One of the greatest contributions which the United States can make toward preserving the free world and eventually extending its boundaries is to keep our free private-enterprise system functioning at a high level. First of all, for the future of our national life we cannot afford a business depression; our own well-being, our internal social and economic stability and our influence abroad—political, military, and psychological—depend upon our economic stability. Furthermore, our tremendous market is now an integral part of the prosperity of the rest of the world; interdependency is now greater than at any other time. Second, in the "cold war" the Soviet masters have undoubtedly built their strategy upon their expectation of a major economic collapse in the United States. Their doctrine, based upon 19th century study and experience with business cycles, and the appearance of confirmation of their theory in the Great Depression, lead them into rigid policies. Since Marx prophesied that depressions would get worse and worse and that

the capitalist powers would therefore embark upon imperialist wars, the experience of depression in the 1930's followed by war causes them to anticipate collapse of all capitalist powers, followed by war. They are preparing to fill the vacuum which would then be left. Therefore, they reason, why should they cooperate with us now?

If the United States uses its knowledge wisely in preventing serious depressions in the future, it will have provided the best possible example of freedom and prosperity to the world—and perhaps even produce a change for the better on the part of Soviet attitudes and doctrine. Wernette draws a final conclusion that "The maintenance of prosperity in the United States is the first requisite for effective American world leadership. An effective prosperity program is therefore of key importance not only to us but to the world" (p. 239).

#### GLOOM IS UNWARRANTED

Professor Wernette is optimistic and backs up his optimism with facts and figures within a simplified context of modern economic theory. "It requires neither courage nor prescience to predict disaster," says Galbraith, "Courage is required of the man who when things are good, says so. Historians rejoice in crucifying the false prophet of the millennium. They never dwell on the mistake of the man who wrongly predicted Armageddon" (p. 6). Professor Wernette is *very* optimistic. In his preface he says:

The central idea of this book is that gloom is completely unwarranted, confidence in the future prosperity of the United States being thoroughly justified. The reasoning in support of this proposition is elaborated and leads to the conclusion that rising prosperity without depression *can* be attained. . . . Nor is this cheerful forecast limited to the United States. Other countries will also experience great economic progress in the decades ahead (p. 6).

Of course, he points out, "this bright prospect . . . could be changed—by a destructive war or moral and spiritual decay among our people, one possible result from too fast and great an increase of material riches" (p. 6). Thus while admitting that there is plenty of cause for pessimism when the past two generations are reviewed—business recession, including the greatest depression, and the two greatest wars—he feels justified in believing that future progress will be even greater than past gains insofar as the United States is concerned.

Wernette divides the basic economic problems



of all nations into three—poverty, progress, and stability—and then proceeds to provide facts and figures for the first two. Poverty, of course, which is the lot of most of the world, is due to wretchedly low per capita productivity. Productivity is determined primarily by the quality of the labor force, the quality of management, and the quantity and quality of capital goods. Elimination of poverty depends upon the improvement of these three factors. Most of the world is struggling with this problem. Progress in raising per capita productivity for most of the world's population, e.g., China, India, Egypt, has not been successful and people live much as their ancestors lived centuries ago. But in certain Western countries, e.g., United States, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, Western Europe, there has been a steady increase in productivity in modern times and it may increase at an even faster rate in the future—per capita real income may double in the next 50 years. Whereas our average per capita income, in 1954 dollars, rose from \$700 in 1900 to \$1750 in 1950, a gain of 150 percent, Professor Wernette believes we should expect per capita income to reach \$4300 by the year 2000; or the average family income rising from \$4400 to \$11,000 in 1954 dollars. Considering the enormous sums now being spent on research, Professor Wernette considers this to be a conservative estimate. Such progress depends, of course, on whether stability can be maintained, i. e., neither inflation nor depression.

#### WHAT CAUSES DEPRESSIONS

World War II proved a significant point in theoretical economics: that if government spending is large enough, unemployment can be eliminated and the national income can be increased. Further, when the war was over, prosperity and inflation continued. This occurred despite the gloomy prediction of post-war depression and millions of unemployed. Wernette's central chapters—8 to 13—provide a simplified analysis of the nature and causes of prosperity and depression. He does this by outlining briefly the income-expenditure theory. For example, when the war required great expenditures by government in the 1940's, investment (construction of new plants and equipment) was induced and employment was increased until full employment was achieved, making price controls and rationing necessary.

Primitive barter economies never experience a true business cycle. These societies are not specialized; most persons engage in agriculture and

produce for themselves most of the things they need. Consequently they live close to the margin of subsistence and therefore can save little, if anything, of what they produce. Since money is an insignificant medium of exchange, practically no saving of money occurs. Whereas in a highly specialized money economy (where money is paid to persons for the production of goods and services) incomes are higher and saving occurs. There are three great streams of spending which provide incomes in our economy. These are spendings for consumer goods, for capital goods, and for government purchases of goods and services. When one of these streams decreases, if not compensated by an increase in one of the others, national income—the aggregate of incomes—will fall. For example if the consumers attempt to save more out of their incomes than the investors are willing to invest in new capital goods, some part of production will remain unsold; these unsold goods will create pessimistic expectations of future demand and thus a fall in incentives for investment in new capital goods.

In an industrial society a depression may be started by any one of a variety of causes such as the stock market crash of 1929, or the speculation collapse of prices in 1920, but the initial break is of minor importance compared to what follows. A cumulative downward movement occurs which is fed by attempts to alter consumption spending by saving more and by cutting investment in capital goods: the streams of spending are cut and incomes fall. Therefore, maintenance of stability calls for prevention of this cumulative downward movement from becoming a major depression.

#### HOW STABILITY CAN BE MAINTAINED

Relative stability, Professor Wernette concludes, can be maintained by providing adequate "monetary demand" to buy all of the goods and services that people can produce, thus maintaining a high level of employment. By "monetary demand" is meant an adequate supply of money in the economy to maintain adequate spending streams for consumer goods, capital goods, and government purchases. Obviously if stability is to be achieved, when the first two streams drop off, the latter stream, government purchases of goods and services, must then increase and vice versa. Through spending and taxing powers ("fiscals policies") government can compensate for deficiency (deflation or business recession or depression) or excess of spending (inflation). Fortunately, some of this compensatory action is already

a matter of law in the United States. But for this compensatory fiscal policy to work satisfactorily, there must be an adequate supply of money available for spending. This supply has to be created through the banking system ("monetary policies"). Additional money may be created by government borrowing: selling bonds to the banks and in return taking deposits which are spent. The Federal Reserve System in the short run can also regulate the quantity of money by buying and selling bonds in the open market, through altering commercial bank reserves, and by loans to commercial banks.

Professor Wernette says that one of the principal lessons to be learned from the war and postwar periods is that

... prosperity and full employment can be stimulated if the money supply is adequate. The new money was mainly created, to be sure, by an expansion of bank credit lent to the government rather than by loans to business, but the effect on business conditions was unmistakable. . . . There is, in short, no mystery about wartime and postwar prosperity. No occult explanations are needed. The explanation is clear—more monetary life-blood in the economic *corpus* stimulated circulation and brought vigour to the ailing patient (pp. 149-150).

But does this mean more government debt which already costs the American people \$6 billion in interest a year? Not necessarily; proper monetary and fiscal policies would produce a government budget balanced *over the business cycle*, i. e., not in balance at any particular time, but a government surplus in times of excessive monetary demand when there is likely inflation and a rising cost of living, and a budgetary deficit when there is business recession and rising unemployment. Government's objective should always be to create conditions favorable to private investment and spending, thus reducing the need for its compensatory action. Business too can help by stabilizing inventories, purchases of equipment and machinery, and developing long-range construction programs, thereby evening out investment. Bankers can help stabilize money flows by avoiding excessive expansion and unnecessary extension of bank credit. But since only government has the welfare of the *whole* economy as its objective, only government can provide the right force at the right time—as Wernette says, a "functional fiscal-monetary system" in which "the financial operation of the federal government—tax receipts, outlays, deficits, and surpluses—can be used to stabilize spending and, if necessary, to generate a counter-cyclical fluctuation in the amount of money" (p. 180).

One important consideration in evaluating

the proposals set forth in this book is that they involve no drift towards socialism or regimentation of private enterprise. In fact, quite the opposite is true; Professor Wernette is defending policies in which government's objective is to keep private enterprise from collapsing in some future depression.

These policies do not undertake to tell anyone what he may or may not do. They do not tell anyone what he must produce or how he must produce it. They do not regulate specific prices or wages. They do not dictate consumer expenditure or business outlays. . . . The achievement of these goals requires that the behavior of individuals and businesses be influenced. But the elements of specific regulation . . . are not present (pp. 205-206).

But suppose the American people are wise and use the economic knowledge and experience accumulated in the last few decades; suppose we now stabilize our economy and continue as Professor Wernette says to increase our standard of living and provide ourselves with more leisure. (He does not discuss the growing world scarcity of strategic materials as the world grows in population and thus increases its need for these resources in short supply.) What then? Will our new wealth and leisure make a better, wiser, more ethical, and vigorous people or will moral and spiritual decline set in and produce economic stagnation and national collapse? Does a people need adversity to develop vigor, inventiveness, stamina, and moral and spiritual strength? In other words, was Oliver Goldsmith (whom Professor Wernette quotes) prophetic when he wrote:

Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,  
Where wealth accumulates, and men decay.

Recently studies of European youth and American youth show that our boys and girls lack the physical strength and endurance of Europeans who live a more rugged life, that our boys and girls have a softer time in school with easier arithmetic, geography and science problems, etc. Those of us who have noted European college youth riding bicycles long distances to classes and our own driving cars from dormitory to classroom have pondered the future. We are left with the feeling that today's economic problems, while still great, in the future may not be the greatest of those facing us. For a people (including the West Europeans) who can develop the atomic secrets of the universe and harness them for power (good or evil), it ought not be too difficult to stabilize a free enterprise economy. But can we stabilize life?

# Presidential Report

Edwin R. Carr

**D**URING recent years it has become customary for the president of the Council to make some observations on the "state of the social studies," to draw some conclusions, and, in some cases, to make some recommendations, either to the Council itself or to the profession at large. This practice, I believe, enables the president to share, in some degree, the rich and invaluable experiences which the presidency of the Council makes possible for whoever holds the office. At the very least, it enables him to unburden himself about matters which have been bothering him for some time; it thus improves his mental health if it serves no other useful purpose.

A statement such as this does not, of course represent an official position of the Council. It is personal. In the present instance, it is a composite of discussions with teachers, talks with students, study of curriculum guides, visits to classrooms, and simple observation, all interpreted in the light of my own convictions—or, if you prefer, my personal biases.

My motivation stems primarily from the comments which have been made and are being made about the social studies. Some of these comments have been unfavorable; one might judge that there is little which we do which is praiseworthy and deserving of commendation and that our efforts are unproductive or relatively so. At times it seems that the good we do is destined to be "interred with our bones."

Some of this criticism comes from outside our ranks. Some of it is informed, rational, and constructive, and we welcome it. Some of it is uninformed, or malicious, or both. We are charged, on the one hand, with being anti-intellectual and with fostering anti-intellectualism in the schools, and on the other hand with being visionary, im-

practical, unconversant with the facts of life. We occasionally achieve the distinction of being labeled "egg-heads." The uninformed make statements such as that which appeared in a generally dependable magazine a few weeks ago; an author referred somewhat scornfully to "something called social studies." The malicious do not hesitate to accuse us of various kinds of subversion.

Some of the criticism comes from within our ranks. This is natural and desirable; we should recognize our shortcomings. Only those in deep ruts are content with what they do. The capable, professionally alert, conscientious teacher is constantly striving to do his job better. Knowing that the job can always be done more skillfully, he does not boast about what he has accomplished nor pat himself on the back for his successes. He is more likely to be articulate about what he does not accomplish, about the students who do not achieve what he hoped for. And since he doesn't coach teams to bring glory to him and to his school, his successes may go unnoticed.

I have a feeling that we in the social studies field often sell ourselves short, that we magnify our shortcomings and minimize our achievements. And so I thought I would try to engage in a sort of non-mathematical accounting, to examine briefly some areas in which I believe we have made real gains and some of those in which we still have much work to do. There is no attempt to make the two balance, nor is there any implication that they do. Nor do I suggest that more than a few of the possible areas will be examined. I do believe that we have made more headway than we give ourselves credit for, and I also believe that sometimes we criticize ourselves for the wrong faults. This attempt at evaluation, of course, is subjective; I employ no statistics for underpinning.

## RECENT GAINS

What can we count as gains? To me the following are the most important.

1. I am convinced that boys and girls have a greatly heightened interest in and awareness of national and world affairs, compared with boys and girls of a few decades ago. This cannot be

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Dr. Carr, a professor in the departments of education and economics at the University of Colorado, and President of the National Council for the Social Studies during 1955, gave this report last November at the National Council's annual convention in New York.

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documented, yet any teacher who has taught over this span of time knows that it is so. Though there are still many students whom we do not reach as we should, there are, I am confident, many more who are much more keenly aware of what goes on about them than were their counterparts of the preceding generation. This has come about, I believe, through inclusion in the curriculum of much greater consideration for economic, social, and political problems; through much greater emphasis on the recent and on the contemporary; through a continually greater attempt on the part of teachers to relate what is taught to the issues and events of our day. It is undoubtedly true that the times themselves have been such as to encourage greater interest in contemporary affairs, but a good deal of credit must be given as well to the teaching of the social studies.

2. Substantial progress has been made in the direction of more wholesome attitudes. This, too, in part reflects the times, but it also reflects the work of the school. There is, for example, a growing social conscience regarding the position of minority groups in our population, an increasing anxiety that steps be taken to improve that position, and a growing willingness to help to bring about improvement. The gradual lowering of barriers of discrimination was well underway before the anti-segregation decisions of the Supreme Court (which in themselves may be taken as evidence of a developing social conscience). Our willingness to assume greater responsibility in world affairs reflects a changing attitude toward the world and its people, as well as a growing intellectual perception of the "one world" concept; and this in spite of the distorted views of some of the leaders of certain organizations—many of which, it might be noted in passing, were "educated" in an earlier day. Moreover, despite the hue and cry about the neglect of political responsibilities on the part of our citizens, nearly two-thirds of our eligible voters cast ballots in the latest presidential election, a higher percentage, I believe, than in any presidential election for 50 years. Which is not to say, of course, that it is good enough, but rather that it is better than we are sometimes led to think. These are distinct gains, and although they are not at all what we might hope, and although one may cite certain other matters which weigh against them, they are, nevertheless, advances and they must be attributed in no small measure to the school.

3. We have made improvements in the curric-

ulum of the social studies. These improvements are by no means universal, nor do they represent an approximation of perfection. But they are real. It is true, of course, that what are regarded as gains by some are looked upon as losses by others; the "integrative" type of curriculum is perhaps a case in point, though I personally am convinced that it is a gain. If we confine ourselves to the more widely offered parts of the social studies, we must conclude that the current program in many schools is a great improvement over that of a decade or two ago. American history, for example, is becoming more a history of the American people, of their social, political, and economic patterns and development, and is much less restricted to a recounting of political and military events. And the deadening duplication is giving way too, although much, much too slowly.

We are becoming less inclined to attempt a survey of the history of the world and more inclined toward selectivity in our efforts to bring students an understanding of how the world got to be what it is today. Place geography, and the part that geography played in historical events, as well as the part that it plays today, are winning an increasingly larger place in the curriculum; we are thus beginning to make up for some generations of neglect. Improvements in the other commonly offered social studies might be cited; they are well known to all of us. We may say that the social studies curriculum is becoming more functional, more meaningful, and much better able to contribute to the student's understanding.

4. We teach better than we used to. Though there is still much piecemeal teaching—day-to-day and page-by-page—increasingly we are organizing and teaching the social studies by units, problems, or in some comparable way which leads to broader viewpoints, grasp of larger understandings, and clearer perception of relationships. Though it is perhaps too much to say that the latter is the dominant type of teaching in the United States today, it is in any case more prevalent than it was a few short years ago and in this respect, at least, the outlook is encouraging.

This scheme of teaching brings more meaning to students. We are working to make concepts more meaningful in other ways, too, and I believe that we are succeeding much better than we were. The widespread use of audio-visual aids of all kinds hardly needs mentioning—it is so well known—were it not so important. Here I would add that our own Audio-Visual Commit-



tee has made a substantial contribution in the last decade and a half, and will most certainly continue to make substantial contributions in the future. The increasing use of works of imaginative literature, of biography, of travel—going far beyond the old dependence on historical fiction—has helped to provide the background of experience which brings reality to social concepts and without which the textbook generalizations may be vague and elusive. Increasing use of the community is another big stride in the field of method; this last has been stimulated considerably by the various citizenship education projects, and particularly by those which have emphasized student action as a necessary part of training for citizenship.

These are all gains. More might be mentioned, but these in my opinion constitute the areas in which we are making greatest progress. The gains are not sufficiently great to lead us into complacency, but they are sufficient that we may take pride in them.

#### UNSOLVED PROBLEMS

For what may we criticize ourselves?

1. First, in my opinion, is a continuing unwillingness to be more realistic with respect to the curriculum. Though many schools have engaged in selective pruning, as noted above, too many still try to provide students with an exposure to the whole range of the data of the social sciences. The reluctance with which many schools give up less important parts of the social studies so that more time may be devoted to the more important, is hard to understand, particularly in view of the fact that there seems to be almost universal agreement that we are trying to teach too much—that is, to cover too much, with the result that sometimes we teach too little. I am confident that the report of our newly established Committee on Concepts and Values will provide teachers and administrators with a statement of the basic concepts and values with which the social studies must deal—though not in the form of a list of minimum essentials nor in the form of a specified content for each grade. The statement will perhaps help many teachers who are overwhelmed with the multitude of social concepts which concern us and will enable them to be more selective than at present.

2. Another matter with which we have not yet dealt adequately is that of making the social studies interesting and, from the standpoint of the student, worthwhile. Though there are many

exceptions, the rule too often has been that the social studies field ranks pretty low in students' estimation, both as to interest and usefulness. It is elaborating the obvious to say that these qualities of interest and value are functions of curriculum and method, but in those schools where students express little regard for the field, teachers would do well to take a long, careful look at what they teach and how they teach it. It may well be that what is needed in many instances is a greater effort to help students see themselves as participants in social situations—not to leave them with the impression that they are, or can be, mere observers. It really shouldn't be hard to interest humans in a field which deals with humans and with the ever present problems of human relationships.

3. We have not yet solved the problem of what to do about the increasing pressure on social studies teachers to deal with personal, and with certain kinds of personal-social problems. Though one cannot deny the importance of these matters to adolescents—matters such as dating and courtship, personality, driver education, and the like—it is certainly questionable whether the teacher of the social studies should assume as much responsibility for them as is often required of him. These personal and personal-social problems are matters for the entire school to concern itself with, and there is little justification for attempting to squeeze most of them into one field. The problem becomes particularly serious when topics of vital national and international import may be forced to give way or to be treated only sketchily or superficially as a result. The social studies teacher cannot solve this problem by himself, but neither can he ignore it. He should, perhaps, insist that it be made a subject of study by the entire school faculty, the goal being a clearer and a more appropriate division of responsibility.

This brief evaluation has been an attempt to weigh some of our principal strengths and weaknesses. I am convinced that, though we are not all, nor always, doing as well as we know how to do, we are, nevertheless, doing better than we used to. We can most certainly challenge those who claim we have lost ground. I believe we can successfully challenge those who claim we have not gained ground—in some respects, a good deal of ground. But at the same time we must remember that there is still much to be done, and that there always will be. Some people can rest on their oars; the successful social studies teacher never can.



# Waltham Students Share Democracy

Margaret M. Gearan

**A**BOUT two years ago the American Field Service Student Exchange Program was presented to the headmaster of Waltham High School, Mr. Francis Sheehy. Realizing the opportunity to further international understanding and good will, Mr. Sheehy agreed that our school would sponsor a student from a foreign country who would attend Waltham High School for a year. Local clubs and organizations, as well as the school's general fund, were called upon to provide the necessary money to support the program. The necessary amount was raised and Peter Diepold from Unterweser, Germany, arrived in Waltham.

Raising enough money to sponsor an exchange student was not a simple matter, and it was decided to carry on the program in alternate rather than consecutive years. When the decision was made known, Peter, thoroughly in love with the United States, its ideals and opportunities, and anxious to keep the program on an annual basis, wasted no time enlisting student aid.

With John Gracey, president of the Waltham Student Council and Joe Scalia, a member of the National Honor Society, Peter made an appointment to discuss the problem with the headmaster. At Mr. Sheehy's suggestion the boys called on Earl Arnold, Secretary of the Waltham Chamber of Commerce, who became vitally interested and sent the boys to Mr. William Rhinehart, one of Waltham's most civic minded businessmen. Catching the boys' enthusiasm, Mr. Rhinehart, who has had much experience in various fund-raising activities outlined a "method of attack."

Ground work was done, committees appointed, and the plan was publicly announced in the local press, *The Waltham News-Tribune*. The whole-hearted support and complete coverage of the program by the *Tribune's* managing editor, Mr. Thomas Murphy, was a significant factor in the success of the venture.

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The author, head of the social studies department at the Senior High School in Waltham, Massachusetts, here describes a civic education project, carried on in her school during the spring of 1955.

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Another of the many enthusiastic backers, Mr. Warren Andrews, a local stationer, donated the engrossed forms called "Shares in Democracy," to be sold to the students at one dollar each.

To supplement the income from these shares, the student body staged a very successful "Talent Show," which was enthusiastically supported by the people of Waltham. Within ten days student donations had passed the \$650 mark and the list of donors had been published. In another two weeks the student body had donated \$1,253.

Student interest was stimulated in the fund's progress by a huge replica of the high school, made by students in the art classes and set up in the main corridor. The flagpole in front of the model school was marked in degrees like a thermometer, and the flag climbed another degree on the pole with each \$100 collected.

On April 16, four student committee chairmen and the headmaster appeared on N.B.C.'s WBZ TV "Big Brother" program as guests of Bob Emery and explained the program and its progress to the TV audience.

The students had done their share and now it was time to enlist the support of the Waltham businessmen. The Chamber of Commerce issued bulletins urging members to sign up for their "Share in Democracy." Responses came in as fast as pleas were released, and the next task was to find a family who would share its home with our second exchange student.

Members of the Waltham High School Debating Club accepted invitations to outline the program and enlist the support of Rotary, Kiwanis, and other service organizations.

Mayor Henry Turner, another booster, proclaimed May 9-13 as "Share in Democracy Week." The Donnelly Advertising Company donated and erected large billboards at the city's main approaches, calling attention to the project.

The Touraine Stores' donation of \$100 before the official city drive, set off a series of similar pledges. Each business contributor invited student committees to visit its establishment during "Democracy Week." The Student Committee called at offices, stores, and plants where they received a hearty welcome and had an opportunity to see functional democracy at work.

By May 17, the goal had been reached. The boys and girls had raised the money to proceed with their version of the "Voice of America." They were now in a position to be hosts to a student selected by the American Field Service for at least two more years, and, in turn, could send Waltham students abroad.

Fittingly to observe such an achievement, an all-school assembly was held on May 17. Among the invited guests were Mr. and Mrs. Irving Crane who had served as Peter's foster parents during his year in Waltham, Mr. William Rhinehart, without whose guiding hand the program might never have been launched, and Judge Paul Connolly. The highlight of the assembly was Peter's expression of his heartfelt apprecia-

tion for his year in the United States and his recognition of the value of the program toward international good will.

A few days later *The Boston Traveler* carried "The Share in Democracy" story, and the students hoped that their venture might serve as an inspiration to boys and girls in schools in other communities.

Martha Ekwall, a Waltham High School Junior, sailed for Necharsulm, Germany, in June, while Anja Havansi, a seventeen-year-old girl from Helsinki, Finland, arrived in Waltham.

The faith of Waltham teenagers in democracy and their determination to share the rights and privileges that our way of life affords, is underwriting the cost of the experiment.

## Letters from Readers

SIRS:

I have read with interest Henry Abraham's "Electing a President." His comprehensive presentation of this timely subject should be helpful to many teachers of the social studies. . . .

Abraham did not mention one feature of the constitutional provision for the electoral college, one which made the developments he portrays almost inevitable. "The Electors shall meet in their respective States." Had the Constitution's framers required them to assemble in one place, to be a real "college" of electors instead of as many "colleges" as there were states, it is quite probable that they would have continued to perform their intended function. Choice of the persons to serve as electors would then be a function of great importance in itself. The quadrennial, noisy national party conventions to nominate candidates would not have any reason for being. We can only surmise the reason for the reputedly wise founding fathers requiring the electors to meet in their respective states. It is possible that many of the framers still believed that the House of Representatives was the appropriate body to elect the President. Perhaps they foresaw the confusion likely to ensue when there was no outstanding national hero like Washington for whom they could vote. Certainly delegates from smaller states could see the advantage for their states in election by the House, each state having one vote.

HOWARD WHITE  
Oxford, Ohio

SIRS:

I've chuckled over "Le Petit Nicos" sketches. . . . Do let us have more of them, please.

FLORENCE MURPHY  
Des Moines, Iowa

SIRS:

Your reminder to forward suggestions for the contents of *Social Education* motivates me to make a plea for the return of certain types of articles which some years ago gave me great pleasure. I refer to the review of recent scholarship in the various disciplines of the social sciences which used to appear regularly in *Social Education*. Many other teachers have, from time to time, deplored to me the disappearance of these articles. . . .

As a personal preference, I would like to see *Social Education* devote about one half of its pages to aspects of scholarship which can help the classroom teacher keep up with the best current thinking in the social sciences. . . .

S. H. HALPERIN  
New York City

SIRS:

I am spending my Sabbatical in France. . . . I have left instructions with our school librarian to send me all future copies of *Social Education* containing "Le Petit Nicos" sketches.

KAY CAMPBELL  
Arlington Heights, Illinois

# The Treatment of Social Security in Civics Textbooks

Robert J. Myers

WITH the growing importance of Social Security in the social and economic phases of our national life, it is only natural that this subject should be treated in many different types of textbooks, both in high schools and in colleges. High school courses in civics, problems of democracy, and history will at least touch upon the subject of social security, while it will be dealt with in college courses in economics, sociology, history, public administration, and social work.

Considering the great number of textbooks involved and the wide number of subjects that each author must treat, it is not surprising that the authors cannot be experts on every topic in the book. Yet it would be anticipated that in describing the broad general details of the Social Security system, factual errors—particularly those of commission rather than omission—would not be too common. Unfortunately, this is not the case. Based on random observation, it has been observed that most textbooks contain factual errors in their treatment of Social Security.

Before we dig into an analysis of the treatment of Social Security in current textbooks, it might be useful to indicate very briefly what the author of a civics book should say about the Old-Age and Survivors Insurance Program (OASI).

## MINIMUM ESSENTIALS

The types of employment covered should be mentioned, indicating those that are on an elective basis, as well as the relatively few categories that are not covered. It should be brought out that, in general, service during World War II

and subsequently counts as covered employment at \$160 a month.

The types of benefits should be mentioned, namely for a retired worker, aged 65 or over and his dependents (meaning child under age 18, spouse aged 65 or over, and wife regardless of age if child under age 18 is present), for certain survivors (spouse aged 65 or over, widow with child under age 18 in her care and such child, and in certain cases dependent parents aged 65 or over), and in addition a lump-sum death payment. As to insured status, it might be mentioned that 10 years of coverage is always sufficient, but that for those currently at or over age 65, the requirement is much less (and this is also the case for those dying at an early age).

As to benefit amounts, it should be stated that they depend on average monthly earnings, generally computed over all years from 1951 on, even though the individual is not in covered employment in all such years, with certain years of low earnings omitted, such as when totally and permanently disabled. The actual benefit formula of 55 percent of the first \$110 of average monthly earnings, plus 20 percent of the next \$240 might be given, or else the general statement might be made that the benefit formula is weighted so as to give relatively higher benefits for those with low earnings. At the same time it is probably desirable to give the minimum and maximum benefits for a retired worker (\$30 and \$108.50 a month), the benefit proportions for dependents and survivors (50 percent for wife, 50 percent for each child except the first survivor child who gets 75 percent, and 75 percent for the widow or parent), and the maximum family benefit (\$200).

The retirement test should be mentioned in principle, and also possibly certain details should be given such as that any beneficiary can earn \$1200 a year without the loss of benefits, with any excess earnings gradually reducing the number of monthly benefits payable. It should further be mentioned that the retirement test applies to any type of employment whether covered or not,

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The following article has been prepared for *Social Education* by the Chief Actuary of the Social Security Administration, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Any opinions here expressed are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Social Security Administration.

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but that it does not apply at and after age 72.

As to the financing provisions, it should be brought out that the maximum earnings subject to contributions is \$4200 a year and that the current tax rates are 2 percent on employer and 2 percent on employee, with the ultimate rates being twice this amount and with the self-employed paying 50 percent more than the employee rate. Furthermore, it should be mentioned that all contributions collected go into the OASI Trust Fund, out of which benefits and administrative expenses are paid, and that the system is intended to be self-supporting from these contributions and from interest earnings on the Trust Fund without any government subsidy. The total cost of the program rises in the future as the aged population increases and as a greater proportion thereof becomes eligible for benefits.

If any history of the system is to be given, the following points might be worthwhile mentioning. The original law was passed in 1935, with contributions first being collected in 1937. In 1939, provisions for survivor benefits and for benefits for dependents of retired workers were introduced. In 1940, monthly benefit payments were first made. In 1950, benefits were roughly doubled, eligibility conditions were eased, and coverage was extended to regularly employed farm and domestic workers, nonfarm self-employed persons other than certain professions, employees of State and local governments who do not have their own retirement system, and employees of non-profit institutions. In 1952, benefits were increased by about 15 percent. In 1954, benefits were again increased by about 15 percent, and coverage was extended to self-employed farmers, State and local government employees under retirement systems, and certain other categories. Over the period of operation of the program, the test for determining whether the worker is "retired" has been considerably liberalized—not only to reflect the general rise in earnings, but also to permit greater opportunity for part-time and occasional employment of beneficiaries without loss of benefits. During 1937-49, employers and employees each had a 1 percent contribution rate, while for 1951-53 this rate was 1½ percent, and in 1954, it was increased to 2 percent. The maximum annual amount subject to contributions was \$3000 for 1937-50, \$3600 for 1951-54, and \$4200 thereafter.

Certain statistical facts might be given on the operations of the program. Thus, in the middle of 1955 there were about seven and one half million beneficiaries, including more than four

million retired workers aged 65 or over and two million more persons aged 65 or over (mostly wives and widows). The six million aged OASI beneficiaries can be contrasted with the 14 million total aged population of the country and with the two and one half million receiving OAA (about 500,000 persons receive both OASI and OAA). During 1955, an average of over 55 million jobs were covered by the program. In the middle of 1955, the Trust Fund amounted to over \$21 billion, while during the year collections will amount to over \$6 billion, and benefit payments will be about \$5 billion, with administrative expenses of about \$100 million.

Enough, then, for the minimum essentials. We turn now to errors often found in textbooks.

#### COMMON ERRORS

To get the facts, a study was made of all textbooks on high school civics in the Educational Materials Laboratory, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C. After disregarding all textbooks that only briefly mentioned the subject of Social Security (such as by containing only a paragraph or two), it was found that the remaining 17 books all contained one or more important factual errors. Almost all of these books were published in 1953 or later so that it was assumed that they should contain an accurate description up through the Social Security Act Amendments of 1952 (enacted in August). The remaining books were published in 1951 or 1952 and thus were considered in the light of being accurate based on the 1950 Amendments.

It is, of course, recognized that in the limited space devoted to Social Security (generally, a chapter), a complete description of the various programs involved could not be given. In essence, the types of factual errors have been noted: first, actual misstatements (when, in the same space, the correct information could have been given) and, second, omission of an important fact even though a less important but related fact was given. An example of the first type of factual error would be a statement that the maximum benefit for a retired worker under the Old-Age and Survivors Insurance system (OASI) was \$75 under the 1952 Act (whereas it was actually \$85). An example of the second type of factual error would be a statement that the OASI system, following the 1950 Amendments, covered all types of employment except professional self-employed persons, non-regularly employed farm and domestic workers, Government employees



under a retirement system, and ministers (the omitted category of self-employed farmers is much more important than some of those listed). Omission of provisions of moderate importance (such as that OASI benefits were, under the 1950 Act, payable from age 75 on even though the individual did not retire—changed to age 72 by the 1954 Act) is not considered for purposes of this analysis to be a factual error.

In order to indicate the type of errors involved, the following list according to subject matter is given. Where more than one book contained the particular error, this is indicated. The following statements of errors are based on the status of the Social Security program at the time the book was written.

*Coverage Under Old-Age and Survivors Insurance (OASI).* No mention is made that self-employed farmers are not covered, although other excluded groups of lesser importance are mentioned (2 books). Stated as not being covered are farm workers (2 books) and domestic workers, although regularly employed persons in these categories were covered by the 1950 Act. One source stated that all self-employed persons are covered, while another made the opposite statement, whereas actually the 1950 Act covered non-farm self-employed other than certain professions. Coverage of state and local government employees was stated to be an elective basis as to both the employer and the employee, whereas actually under the 1950 Act the great majority of such employees who are not under a retirement system could be covered at the election of the employer alone, and those who were under a retirement system could not, in virtually all instances, be covered at all. One source stated that the wage test for domestic workers is \$500 in a quarter year, whereas the correct figure is \$50.

*OASI Benefits as Annuities.* No mention is made of the "retirement test" provisions, but rather the payments are stated to be payable upon attainment of age 65 (3 books).

*Age Requirement for OASI Wife's and Widow's Benefits.* The statement appears that benefits are payable to the wife of a retired worker regardless of her age (2 books), although actually such benefits are payable only when she has a child under age 18, or when she is aged 65 or over. The same misstatement also appears in regard to widow's benefits (4 books).

*OASI Survivor Benefits.* No mention is made of the monthly survivor benefits for widows under age 65 with children under age 18 (4 books). Statements are made that child's benefits

are paid until the child is old enough to support himself, or during minority (presumably meaning under age 21)—rather than giving the specific limiting age of 18. It is stated that for individuals dying before age 65, a refund of contributions plus interest is made; this, however, was a provision of the law applicable only before the 1939 Act. It is stated that under the 1939 Act, benefits were provided for parents of retired workers (this was never the case, such benefits being applicable only for deceased insured individuals), and that lump-sum payments were made only for deaths before age 65 (actually such payments were available regardless of age of the deceased insured individual and regardless of whether death occurred before or after retirement).

*OASI Insured Status.* It is stated that to be fully insured requires 40 quarters of coverage, whereas the fact is that the requirement is materially lower for those now near or over age 65 (in some cases as low as 6 quarters).

*Amounts of OASI Benefits.* The minimum payment to retired workers is stated to be \$20 a month, while the maximum is \$85; the \$20 figure is correct for the 1950 Act, but not for the 1952 Act (then \$25), while the \$85 figure is correct for the 1952 Act. It is stated that under the 1950 Act, benefits are increased by an increment for each year of coverage, whereas actually this provision was eliminated by the 1950 Act for all subsequent years (and thus in the vast majority of cases since benefits are generally computed beginning with 1951). The maximum family benefit is stated to be \$170 a month, and the maximum for a retired worker alone is \$80; according to the 1952 Act, these figures are \$168.75 and \$85 respectively (for the 1952 Act, \$150 and \$80 respectively). The benefit for an aged widow is stated to be 50 percent of that for the retired worker involved, whereas the correct proportion is 75 percent. A table of illustrative benefits and family maximum payments shows that the latter are never more than twice the benefit for the retired worker; actually these figures are incorrect since no such maximum exists in the 1950 Act and subsequent amendments. It is stated that benefits vary with years of employment. Actually they vary only with the earnings level and with the proportion of the time that an individual could be covered in which he actually is covered.

*OASI Contribution Rates.* The self-employed are stated to have a "slightly higher" contribution rate than employees (2 books); although this may be correct at present in terms of dollars, depending upon one's point of view, the impor-



tant comparison is relative, and an excess of 50 percent is not merely "slightly higher." The ultimate contribution rate for employers and employees is stated to be  $3\frac{1}{2}$  percent each (2 books), whereas the correct figure is  $3\frac{1}{4}$  percent. The maximum annual earnings, subject to contributions, is stated to be \$3,000 whereas this was correct only through 1950, with the correct amount being \$3,600 beginning in 1951.

*Conceptual Basis of OASI Contributions.* It is stated OASI contributions are recorded in individual accounts (3 books). Actually, only the amount of credited earnings is so recorded so that this statement gives a misleading impression of an individual, personal savings account, with the benefits being directly determined therefrom.

*Operation of the OASI Trust Fund.* It is stated that the Trust Fund is managed by the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, whereas the Secretary of the Treasury does this. Also, payments for Unemployment Insurance and Aid to Dependent Children, as well as OASI, are stated to be made from the Trust Fund, whereas actually Unemployment Insurance payments come from the Unemployment Trust Fund, and Federal Funds for Aid to Dependent Children come from the General Treasury.

*Old-Age Assistance (OAA) Payments of OASI Beneficiaries.* One book very definitely states that OAA is available only for persons not covered by OASI, and a number of other books imply this. Actually, OASI beneficiaries having residual needs receive OAA.

*Federal Matching Basis for OAA.* The actual basis used is misstated in a number of cases. It is erroneously stated that there is equal matching with the states (4 books) and that the maximum amount of the individual payment on which there is matching is \$40 (2 books) and \$50 (4 books), whereas the correct figure is \$55 with the former figure being contained in the 1939 Act, but supplanted in the 1946 Act and the latter figure by the 1952 Act). The matching formula contained in the 1946 Act was incorrectly given as the existing basis (2 books); it was replaced by new formulas in the 1948 and 1952 Act.

*Unemployment Insurance.* The waiting period for benefits is stated as being two to four weeks. Only at the very inception of the program were there such long periods. Virtually all states now have a waiting period of one week or less.

*Statistical Facts.* The following erroneous data were presented: The aggregate payment to OAA recipients are almost twice as large as those to aged persons under OASI; actually, in 1953,

total OASI payments to aged persons amounted to about 50 percent more than total OAA payments (OAA payments were twice as large as OASI payments to aged persons only in 1949 and earlier). The number of persons covered by Unemployment Compensation is 20 million; actually the current coverage of this program is about 40 million and even a few years back was not less than 35 million. The OAA roll decreased from 4,000,000 persons in 1949 to 2,745,000 in 1951; actually the number of OAA recipients in 1949 did not exceed 2,736,000 with a peak having been reached in 1950 at 2,810,000. There were 1,000,000 recipients of OAA in 1948; actually, in 1948, the number varied between 2,300,000 and 2,500,000.

It should again be emphasized that some of the correction statements made above are no longer true, as a result of the 1954 OASI amendments. Thus, under this law, self-employed farmers are covered (as are also State and local government employees under a retirement system, on an elective basis); the maximum taxable earnings is \$4200 a year; the ultimate contribution rate for employers and employees is 4 percent each; and the maximum benefit for a retired worker is \$108.50 a month; for a family, \$200.

The Social Security Administration, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, has available a considerable amount of printed information about the Social Security program. Furthermore, the facilities of its more than 500 district offices scattered throughout the country, as well as the central office in Washington, D. C., are available for giving out information and for fact checking by any interested persons.

In summary, the above analysis indicates the presence of a number of serious errors in high-school civics textbooks. These errors could easily have been avoided and eliminated if the authors had given more thorough study to the subject matter involved. Although there are no discernible categories of errors commonly made, one difficulty seems to be that in revisions insufficient consideration is given to changes resulting from subsequent legislative action. While this study is limited to high school textbooks, it is believed that the same situation prevails in most college textbooks. The situation disclosed here would seem to indicate that those preparing textbooks should do more adequate research when giving specific and detailed information about Governmental programs and especially should be watchful at the time of making revisions for the latest legislative action.

# Geography: Suggested Activities

James K. Anthony

ANY activity that leads the student away from the narrow confines of the textbook tends to make the learning process easier. There are some subjects that do not lend themselves readily to such digressions, but certainly geography can boast of many functional activities other than the rote method of textbook learning. The following six activities are suggested for a livelier approach to the study of geography.

## FUNCTIONAL PLACE GEOGRAPHY

Association of ideas makes for a more intelligent student whereas the cluttering up of his mind with facts without purpose leads to educational confusion. If place geography is to have meaning for the pupils, the place being studied should either be associated with some economic activity or it should have some political or historical significance. One functional approach to place geography is to obtain a large outline map of the United States and ask the students to affix postmarks from letters at the proper places on the map. The child supplying a particular postmark will undoubtedly have friends or relatives in that particular town or city and be able to furnish a few economic or historic facts about the place. Once authenticated, these facts can be typed on a small piece of paper and attached to the map next to the postmark. A small picture clipped from a newspaper or magazine may serve in place of the written material. In this way, interest in associated facts can be greatly stimulated.

## GREATER USE OF RAISED MAPS

The flat wall map with its multi-colored symbols has served its purpose and has served it well, but more functional aids are now available. On the new, large-scale, plastic, raised maps, the students can actually "feel" the mountains and

valleys. There is probably no finer cartographic device by means of which to show students how the Susquehanna River has cut across the mountains and maintained its course during the Appalachian uplift than these elevated maps. By studying the contour intervals the class can gain a greater appreciation of the elevation of the region. Many topographical maps are now being made with raised land masses.

## JIG-SAW PUZZLES FOR SLOW LEARNERS

Although "slow-learners" may not grasp the significance of some learning experiences as quickly as others in the class, when the right stimulus is employed their response is gratifying. Quite often that response may be obtained through the use of puzzles. If the student can "make" the United States, his understanding of the relative position of the states is improved. The new plastic jig-saw puzzle maps are, of course, to be preferred, but an enterprising teacher may make her own puzzle by merely pasting maps of the country currently being studied on heavy cardboard (or plywood if a jig-saw is available) and cutting them into odd-shaped pieces.<sup>1</sup>

## BASEBALL QUIZ GAME

Classroom competition is an old stand-by for stimulating interest, and children love baseball. Try the following three-inning game for diversion. Select two teams, perhaps one of girls and one of boys. The pitcher of one team throws a ball (in the form of a question) and the batter of the other team attempts to answer the question. Whether the batter is credited with a single, a double, or a triple, or a home run depends upon how well he answers the question. If the batter appears completely ignorant of the answer, he is ruled out, whereas if he makes a feeble attempt to answer the question, the "umpire" may rule that the batter has "fled out" to one of the players of the opposing team. If the fielder

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These helpful hints for arousing the pupils' interest in the study of geography came to us from an instructor of geography at Southern University in Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

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<sup>1</sup> The mail order houses and many hardware stores sell small jig saws with built-in magnetic motors. These relatively inexpensive saws (\$15 to \$20) are safe and easy to use.—The Editor

answers the question correctly the batter is out; if he does not the batter has a strike called against him. The pitcher may occasionally toss a question at the person on base in an effort to get him called out. Needless to say the teacher will undoubtedly have to amend some of the existing rules of organized baseball to fit this classroom situation.

#### MAP IDENTIFICATION

Here is an activity that may be completed outside of the classroom. From several road maps of different states, the teacher cuts two-inch squares. In each square a "clue" word appears. The clue may be the name of a city, a mountain, a river, or some other landmark that might identify the section of the map from which the square was cut. The square is then attached to the upper left-hand corner of a sheet of notebook paper. Each pupil receives one and must identify the segment of the map and find out why the region is important. For example, a student may have a section of a map with the "clue" words, "Yazoo River." After identifying the region in

Mississippi, he will write a paragraph or two on the geological formation that makes the Yazoo River system unusual.

#### ANALYSIS OF ADVERTISING CLAIMS

The Chamber of Commerce and other civic organizations do an admirable job of promoting the general welfare of a city. However, many times their advertising claims are matters of conjecture. An analysis of the advertising claims of a city as written up on post cards and in newspapers and brochures gives the students an opportunity to put their knowledge of a city to work to ascertain the degree of exaggeration. For example, a city may advertise that "The sun shines here some part of every day," or "Our temperature never falls below 65°," or "Our city has the largest shopping district in the United States." These statements may be proved or disproved with a little serious research, and the class will gain useful knowledge about other cities while seeking to prove that the place whose claims they are analyzing is or is not all it is advertised to be.

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#### THE UNBELIEVABLE INCAS

*The following description of the Inca system of communication appears in John Collier, Indians of the Americas (Copyright 1947, by John Collier). This passage is here reprinted with the permission of the author and of the publisher, The New American Library, from the paper-bound Mentor edition, which sells for 35 cents. A hard-bound trade edition is published by W. W. Norton and Company.*

"The Inca roads, traversed by runners and burden and litter-bearers, and by the domesticated llama and alpaca, ran from ocean to jungle and from the far south to the far north of the empire. . . .

"On the roads, in posthouses, were stationed the highland couriers. . . . The couriers were trained from youth, but as in all labor for the state, they were rotated and relieved at short intervals. The posthouses varied in interval from a mile and a half to five miles, according to ascent. Non-stop, all-weather, day-and-night service was kept up on all the arterial roads, primarily for administrative and military reports and orders, but also for transport of light and perishable tribute to Cuzco, to the central storehouses, or the Inca himself who might be on a tour of the empire accompanied by thou-

sands of his train.

"Along the roads were also built the *tampucuna*, or inns for travelers. These were commodious; their main room was 100 to 300 feet long and 30 to 50 feet wide; and there were private apartments and storerooms in addition. These inns were built, serviced and supplied by the local authorities. In these inns, as we learn from Father Bernabe Cobo's history, were lodged, wholly at the expense of the Inca, the various classes of official travelers—and there were none but officially sanctioned travelers.

"In times of emergency, the running couriers were supplemented through smoke and fire signaling. The smoke and fire code, according to Garcilaso, transmitted news, from as much as 2,000 miles distant, to Cuzco in two or three hours or even less time."

# Audio-Visual Materials for Teacher Education in the Social Studies

Alice M. Eikenberry

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*During the past year, the work of the National Council's Committee on Audio-Visual Materials has been supplemented by several sub-committees, one of which has been investigating the use of audio-visual materials for teacher education in the social studies.<sup>1</sup> The report which appears below was prepared for the committee by the chairman, Dr. Alice M. Eikenberry.*

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## GENERAL REMARKS

Valuable experimentation is being carried on in the use of sight and sound in the pre-service and in-service preparation of social studies teachers. The committee found that the use of closed circuit television is in the initial stages in a number of institutions of higher learning. Television has potentialities for observation of classes in the social studies on the elementary and secondary levels by college methods classes and for the observation of expert teaching on any level of the social studies.

Some institutions are making films, slides, and tape recordings of good learning situations and of expert instruction in the various teaching areas on all grade levels. The resulting audio-visual materials will be available for use in the pre-service and in-service training of teachers.

Wisconsin is experimenting with a series of radio broadcasts that provide in-service teachers with ready access to opportunities for improving their professional competence. Many of the schools are taking the programs from radio on to tape and using the tapes to "spark" their teachers' meetings. One section of the series, Community Relationships, is of special value to the teacher of the social studies.

A series of handbooks on how to make and use inexpensive visual instructional materials is avail-

able from the Visual Instruction Bureau, the University of Texas, Austin 12. The hand books, which are under the general classification of "Bridges for Ideas," have the following titles: *Tear Sheets for Teaching*, *Bulletin Boards for Teaching*, and *Felt Boards for Teaching*. The cost of a single copy is \$1.00.

The committee found very few records and tape recordings suitable for teacher education in the social studies. Although many tapes and records are available, most of them are for classroom use on the elementary and secondary levels or for subject matter areas on the college level.

The members of the committee would like to express their appreciation to the audio-visual department of Indiana University, Kent (Ohio) State University, Southern Illinois University, the University of Illinois, the University of Texas, the University of Wisconsin, and Illinois State Normal University. We also wish to express our appreciation to the Joint Committee on Educational Television.

## FILMS AND FILMSTRIPS

In the films and filmstrips listed below, the items marked with a single asterisk are particularly useful for elementary school teachers; those marked with a double asterisk are particularly useful for secondary school teachers.

### Films

\**Arranged Environment*. 4 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Produced by the University of Southern California Department of Cinema in Co-operation with Los Angeles City Schools. A sixth-grade teacher places various Mexican objects around the classroom and urges the children to ask questions. The children form committees according to major interests and look for answers

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<sup>1</sup> Sub-Committee on Audio-Visual Materials for Teacher Education in the Social Studies:

Alice M. Eikenberry, University High School, Illinois State Normal University, Normal (Chairman)  
Adeline Brengle, Bloomington (Indiana) High School  
John Hamburg, Edgerton (Wisconsin) Public Schools  
Edna Oswald, Kent (Ohio) State University  
Gerald Read, Kent (Ohio) State University  
Omer Renfrow, Evanston (Illinois) Township High School  
Gladys Smith, University School, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale



to their questions. A good film for pointing out techniques of motivation that may be used in the teaching of social studies. (University of Southern California, 1954)

•*Belonging to the Group*. 16 minutes; sound; black-and-white. The film stresses the importance of the basic social premise of respect for the individual. Contrasts two families moving into a community and their problems in finding their place in new surroundings. The barriers to acceptance and to ways of proving worth are emphasized. The film has value in provoking discussion on the role of the teacher in the adjustment of new pupils. (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1953)

••*Freedom to Learn*. 27½ minutes; sound; black-and-white; color. The film shows modern methods of teaching controversial issues and the community prejudices that a teacher sometimes encounters in teaching such issues. The teacher explains before an open meeting of the school board why she teaches about communism and why she believes it is important that students study controversial issues. (National Education Association, 1954)

*Geography of Your Community*. 10 minutes; black-and-white; color. A boy on his way to school discovers many things about this community—the relationship between industries and geography, farmlands and residential areas, and rivers and highways. The film may be used to encourage children in the intermediate grades and junior high to collect and organize data about their community, as well as to show social studies teachers how to utilize community resources. (Coronet, 1954)

*History in Your Community*. 12 minutes; sound; black-and-white; color. Educational Collaborator, Donald Dean Parker, South Dakota State College. Shows eighth grade students discovering that history is all around them as they begin to look, read, and ask about the history of their community. Points out how parallels can be drawn between local and national history. Film is of value to intermediate and junior high school students as well as to teachers of social studies. (Coronet, 1954)

••*Learning from Class Discussion*. 11 minutes; sound; black-and-white; color. Educational Collaborator, Dora V. Smith, University of Minnesota. Stresses the value of properly phrased questions that stimulate thought and lead to new avenues of discussion within the major question. It is a useful film for junior and senior high school students as well as for teachers. (Coronet)

•*Mike Makes His Mark*. 29 minutes; black-and-white; color. Points out how the facilities of the school, such as an effective guidance program, remedial reading, and teacher understanding can be utilized in dealing with Mike, the troublemaker. Applies to teachers on all grade levels as each has or will have a Mike. (National Education Association, 1955)

•*Planning the Museum Field Trip*. 9 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Produced by the Department of Cinema in connection with the Los Angeles County Museum, Los Angeles County Schools, Culver City Unified School District, and the Audio-Visual Education Department, S. D. Shows pupils planning for a museum trip. The museum's educational director talks to fifth graders about what is at the museum and the pupils decide what they want to see and draw up procedures which they will follow while in the museum. A good film for showing techniques of pupil-teacher planning for a field trip. (University of Southern California, 1952)

••*Problem Method* (Parts I and II). Sound; black-and-white. Part I, "Defining the Problem and Gathering Information" (18 minutes), demonstrates the essentials of the problem method by following a class in its step-by-step study of pressure groups. Part I closes with pupils sharing the information they have gathered. Part II, "Using the Information to Solve the Problem" (16 minutes), opens with pupils discussing ways in which they can use their information. They turn to the problem of a local traffic bill on which pressure groups are working and use the same procedures on the problem that they had used in their study of pressure groups in general. (McGraw-Hill, 1955)

••*Role-Playing in Guidance*. 13 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Presents the techniques and advantages of using role-playing in helping young people with their problems. Shows a teacher using the technique in helping prepare a boy to face an unhappy home situation and in preparing him to apply for a job. (University of California, 1953)

•*The School—The Child's Community*. 17 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Story of an elementary school that developed a program of pupil responsibility. Portrays the school's interpretation of the rights and responsibilities of pupils as they plan and carry through the activities of their school as a community. Examples are taken from both upper and lower grades. Good for showing how skills in social living can be developed. (Wayne University)



*The School and the Community.* 14 minutes; sound; black-and-white; color. Shows the problem of the wall of separation that exists between many schools and their communities and the losses which each suffers. Argues that teachers, parents, school officials, and the citizenry at large share responsibility for these conditions. Shows benefits for the school and the community when they co-operate. Can be used to illustrate how the wise use of community resources is beneficial to the teaching of social studies. (McGraw-Hill, 1952)

**\*\*What Do You Think Series.** These films, designed to stimulate discussion in the classrooms of secondary schools, may be used in the pre-service and in-service training of social studies teachers to show how discussion of social and moral problems of good citizenship can be stimulated. "One Man's Opinion" (6 minutes); sound; black-and-white, centers on a classroom situation in which a campaign is under way to raise funds for a school project. One student is reluctant to give because of the high pressure methods used. The film points out how one person's judgment might reasonably run counter to the majority opinion. "The Majority Rule" (7 minutes); sound; black-and-white, provokes discussion on whether a representative should vote his own opinion or those of his constituents. Shows a class of high school students voicing their disapproval of the support given by their student council representative to a measure curtailing the number of activities in which a pupil could participate. "The Honest Truth" (5 minutes); sound; black-and-white, poses the question of whether an honest judgment is better than diplomatic double-talk in a situation where an individual's feelings may be hurt. Concerns the writing of a review for a school paper of a school play in which a popular but untalented student had the leading role. (Produced by the National Film Board of Canada, McGraw-Hill, 1953)

### Filmstrips

*Beyond the Textbook.* Color. A public school teacher is distressed over the lack of interest of pupils in the study of Africa. She discovers how visual and other experiences can bring Africa to the American classroom. The film has value in pointing out to the prospective and in-service

social studies teacher how going beyond the textbook can vitalize teaching. (Frank Lindhorst, 1951)

*How We Find Out.* Black-and-white. Demonstrates various ways of gathering facts and doing research projects by showing a high school class studying "Our Neighbors in South America." (Wayne University, 1954)

*Know Your Community.* Black-and-white. Presents the services to be found in all communities—schools, churches, libraries, and the health department. The film can be used to lead into a discussion of how to locate and use community resources in the social studies classroom. (Stanley Bowmar Company, 1949)

\*The following filmstrips are a part of the "Experiences in Living" series for teachers of the primary grades. The filmstrips have a value for the teacher of the social studies in that they demonstrate how the child can be led into co-operative planning and democratic decision making. In *We Plan Together* a primary grade class plans the work and activities it will carry on. *We Work Together* portrays a primary grade co-operatively planning and carrying out its project of building a grocery store in the classroom. In *We Make Some Safety Rules* a primary grade participates in the making of safety rules. (Young America, 1952)

### Directory of Producers and Distributors

Following are the addresses of the producers and distributors listed in the annotated bibliography. In most cases, however, the films and filmstrips will be available at any film center.

Bowmar. Stanley Bowmar Co., 513 W. 166th St., New York 32.

Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Illinois.

Lindhorst. Frank Lindhorst, Director, Christian Community administration, College of the Pacific, Stockton 4, California.

McGraw-Hill Book Co. Text-Film Department, 330 West 42nd St., New York 36.

National Education Association, Division of Adult Education Services, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

University of California, University Extension, Visual Instruction, 2272 Union St., Berkeley, California.

University of Southern California, Audio-Visual Services, Department of Cinema, 3518 University Avenue, Los Angeles 7, California.

Wayne University, Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau, 5272 2nd Blvd., Detroit 1, Michigan.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.

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"At each stage of life there are certain things which must be learned at that special time so we can continue to grow healthily."—L. A. Cremin and M. L. Borrowman in *Public Schools in Our Democracy*.

# Field Trips and the Development of Intellectual Skills

Earl S. Johnson

I CHOOSE to examine the relation between the field trip and the development of intellectual skills in the context suggested by the distinction between "acquaintance with" and "knowledge about" made classic by William James. This may be also stated as the difference between first- and second-handed knowledge.

Education suffers severely from experience based chiefly on second-handed knowledge. The suffering is greatest when that kind of knowledge is had through a dull textbook and/or a dull teacher. It suffers less, indeed the suffering may all but disappear and sheer joy take its place, through the use of motion pictures which are, I suspect, the best surrogates for direct experience with the real universe they picture.

Motion pictures bring the outdoors into the classroom. The field trip takes the students out of the classroom into the outdoors. The difference is a very real one, for the field trip permits not only first-handed knowledge but immediate rather than vicarious experience with social reality. It gives "acquaintance with" it.

The distinction between "acquaintance with" and "knowledge about" was stated wittily by Alfred North Whitehead in his observation that, "In the Garden of Eden, Adam saw the animals before he named them; in the traditional educational system children named the animals before they saw them."<sup>1</sup> Vigorous remnants of that system still exist.

Second-handed knowledge or "knowledge about" is chiefly verbal knowledge—words which are often awkward and ambiguous symbols for

the realities which they label. Indeed the world in which many of us live is constructed chiefly of words. The effect is that we suppose that the real world is the same as the one we construct out of words. We often believe this—no matter how fantastic or absurd the words be. "All Greeks are roly-poly men" is an example of reality-making by word-making.<sup>2</sup>

Many of us—youth and adults alike—do not know how to look or how to listen. We hold, erroneously, that "seeing is believing." And so it may be. The difficulty, however, is that seeing is not *per se*, understanding. It is understanding which it is the chief business of education to establish and, on the basis of it, believing.

These remarks are premised on the view that students live in a world of symbols, verbal and non-verbal, but possess little skill in their interpretation. Things *are* what they *mean*. But their meanings are not self-evident. Moreover, they do not reside in things. They reside in the perspectives we take toward things. These constitute the frames of reference within which we perceive both verbal and non-verbal symbols: words, gestures, facial expressions, occupations, houses, and land.

I am not suggesting that social education dispense with words. I am only suggesting that the emotions of our students are most easily reached, not by words but by sight and sounds. To this observation I would add that if their emotions are not educated their lives are undirected. In that condition they will lead only random and chance lives.

Perhaps these remarks are enough to show the need for extra-mural experience. (Its relation to intra-mural experiences will be commented on later.) What some of these extra-mural experi-

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Dr. Johnson is Professor of the Social Sciences at the University of Chicago. This article is based on a paper which he read at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies in New York, November 19, 1955, and on part of the chapter, "Approaches to an Understanding of the Community," in his book, *Theory and Practice of the Social Studies* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1956).

<sup>1</sup> *Science and the Modern World*. Mentor Book Edition. P. 198.

<sup>2</sup> Spencer Brown. *They See For Themselves*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945. p. 24. See also Helen M. Lynd. *Field Work in College Education*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945, for an excellent source on field experience.

ences may be I should like to discuss. They constitute the skills of social research used with primary resources.

I believe that the first of these is the skill of *honest observation*. To see what is there, rather than what one wants to find there is not only a basic principle of science, it is also a basic principle of morality. Honest observation it seems to me, is enhanced by field experience due to the fact that prejudices and pre- and mis-conceptions may be immediately confronted. Being confronted they may be challenged. There is, of course, no certainty that the scales of false perception will fall from the eyes of students through field experience but there is, I believe, a greater likelihood that they will than through the power only of verbal evidence. In the field, students may come, more readily than in the classroom, to understand that they look not only *at* but *with*. Failure to understand the difference between *at* and *with* is the root of false perception. This difference may, I think, be more readily sensed in the field than in the classroom.

Honest observation would, we hope, pay off in many ways. Chief among them is its value in helping to expose certain tough and persistent fallacies.<sup>3</sup> They are such as these:

(a) We know social reality because we were born in it and have lived in it all our lives.

(b) The provision of adequate housing is alone sufficient to guarantee law-observance.

(c) The individual farmer can successfully cope with soil erosion without the necessity of his joining with others in collective action which treats its causes.

Secondly, although I hold to no fixed order of the benefits of field experience, students may directly come to know the *toughness of facts*. Their toughness, we trust, will turn out to be greater than that of the prejudicial conceptions they bring with them. These constitute their false assumptions about social life and human nature. The triumph of tough fact over any one of these is a result of field experience devoutly to be anticipated and specifically planned for.

As Whitehead observed, "the second-handedness of the learned world is the secret of mediocrity." "It is," he wrote, "tame because it has never been scared by facts."<sup>4</sup> Field experience may provide the kind of fright which will reveal not

only the toughness of facts but may also engender respect for them. Both of these values may be secured by discovering the difficulty which is involved in establishing a fact, especially a social fact; the service which facts may render in proving or disproving some proposition about man and his ways, and their use in revising hypotheses.

The role of facts is, in short, that of providing an empirical or matter-of-fact test of hypotheses and principles. The classic illustration of the absence of such an empirical procedure is that of the Scholastics who determined the number of teeth in a horse's mouth by sheer deduction. They may have sharpened their wits somewhat but they added little to men's knowledge about the dentition of a horse.

Such hypotheses and/or principles as these may be examined in the light of observable social facts:

(a) The over-crowding of land for revenue purposes reduces the area available for play and other leisure activities.

(b) Erosion of land often has its source in places which lie outside the area in which it poses a severe problem to the farmer.

(c) Consensus is difficult to achieve in areas of fast population turn-over.

(d) The slum is an example of an "under-developed area."

It is obvious that field experience permits learning to begin with concrete rather than abstract things. It confronts students with "facts in a state of dispersion," as Langlois and Seignobos expressed it. The task of ordering them and wringing from them some useful meaning is, in short, the task which field experience allows. The need for students to encounter such a task follows from the fact that much of the subject-matter with which they deal is ready made, or second-handed. While it may give them genuine substantive knowledge, little of it can give them experience in deriving it. (History, obviously, must, except for local history, remain pretty much ready-made or of the "knowledge about" variety.) For the most part, students are *given*, rather than earn most of the facts and propositions they get about human affairs. If, to change the figure, a machine-made mode of learning may give them an abundance of factual knowledge, the handicraft mode which field experience permits may, although it gives them less of it "by bulk," give them a more reliable brand.

Incident to or rather a pre-condition for the empirical test of hypotheses and principles which field experience permits, is the opportunity given

<sup>3</sup> William James, "A Certain Blindness in Human Beings" in *Talks to Teachers*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1909, is the classic statement which reveals how field experience may expose fallacious beliefs we hold about human beings whose ways are different from ours.

<sup>4</sup> *Aims of Education*. Mentor Book Edition, 1949, p. 61.

for the making of definitions on the spot, this is, in front of the raw data.

Definitions are, in my judgment, best framed when they are *operationally* stated. Field experience allows this far more readily (although with greater difficulty, but with greater reliability), than the classroom can. In the field the student is, as I have observed, in front of his data. In the classroom he is often removed both in time and space from that which he seeks to define. The case for operationally stated definitions rests on such assumptions as the following:

- (a) One's idea or conception of a thing is his idea of its sensible or perceptible effects.
- (b) If there is a distinction in the meaning of two or more concepts or terms that distinction can be no finer than what may be demonstrated in some form of behavior.
- (c) The function of concepts or items is to produce some kind of behavior.
- (d) The rational significance of a concept or term lies completely in its conceivable bearing on the conduct of one's life.<sup>2</sup>

In light of these assumptions the "service state" may be defined in terms of the services which various governmental bodies and jurisdiction perform; the "slum" in terms of the non-honorific roles which its denizens play, its lack of basic cultural institutions and the pattern of its land-use; "capital resources" in terms of investments in land, buildings, and equipment of many kinds; and even such an intangible concept as "fatigue" in terms of the thoughts and feelings of workers who perform various kinds of enervating labor. Indeed, students may experience fatigue and thus enjoy what I think of as "kinaesthetic learning" through the "good hurt" of muscles grown tired in the hunt for objective truth.

Finally, as respects operational definitions, they are best because they state the meaning of things in terms of how the objects so defined behave and thus give a clue as to how students may behave toward them. Hence, they give students *clarity of reference* whose opposite is ambiguity—the ambiguity which reports itself in mysterious rather than clear ideas. The difference between them is the difference between terms which give or suggest a muddled and confused portent for action and those which give or suggest a clear and definite portent for it.

Clear ideas, I believe, are more readily come by in field than in classroom experience because the action aspect of social knowledge can be ob-

served in the field while it must be more or less inferred in the classroom. Moreover, social knowledge is acquired in the field, literally, *in action*.

The action aspect of field experience suggests appropriately, the various roles which it permits students to play. These are spectator, participant observer, interviewer and statistical and case-study data gatherer. Of these roles, I would stress the significance of the participant observer which permits students to enter into the sentiments, experiences, beliefs and imagery of those whom they study. Thus they may get their social data truly inside them, where they belong.

I am, in all of these remarks, speaking of the method of inquiry which gives, not certainty, but maximum correctness which is always subject to revision in the light of new evidence.

This method works through four disciplines: imagination, precision, appreciation, and synthesis. Field experience stimulates imagination. This is the ability to imagine relationships of cause and effect. The field tends to present, even force, many of them. They are such as these: occupations and the political beliefs of those who work at them; standards of living and morbidity and mortality rates; the quality of sanitary, policing and other protective services, and the degree to which a community is articulate about its claims on such services; and the various "worlds of work" and kinds of leisure they permit.

The discipline of precision has already been illustrated in my discussion of honest observation, the toughness of facts, and operational definitions. Appreciation comes through being face-to-face with the realities of life and thus feeling and sensing them. That it may be negative as well as positive goes without saying. The discipline of synthesis enters in the togetherness-of-things which is more readily grasped in field than in classroom experience.

The fruit of the discipline of synthesis is the transfer of learning. This is the application or relevance of a given experience to other experiences of the same family or *genre*. Through it, the unique and the universal are related. Such a transfer is, in part, the change of percepts into concepts. This transfer may be illustrated by taking such *percepts* as substandard housing, the indiscriminate mixture of land used for industrial, commercial, and residential purposes, inadequate public services, and the absence of play-space and creating out of them the *concept*, "the slum."

Such a transfer as this is, as I understand it,

(Continued on page 127)

<sup>2</sup> These statements are, in fact, variations on the same theme. See *Selected Papers of William James*. New York: The Modern Library. p. 81, ff.



# Army Schools Make Friends in Germany

Robert D. Hall

AMERICA is partially supporting a huge and expansive organization in Germany. We have literally created a "little America" over here. Included in the many services provided for the American personnel are schools. I think it might be of interest to people in the United States to know how the teachers, parents, and administrators of some of these schools are making use of their unique opportunity to associate with the Germans.

Like millions of others, I was in Germany ten years ago. It was an ugly place then. Many Germans wanted to be in any other place in the world except Germany. Now, ten years later, the country is again vigorous and prosperous. Daily, new buildings are completed, highways are crowded, and the sound of "gemütlichkeit" is heard in the land. What is perhaps more important, there seems to be an increasing desire on the part of both Germans and Americans to know each other better.

Many groups have already sponsored joint activities for the people of the two countries. America House has made available to the Germans books and films. German ministers are invited to deliver sermons in American chapels. German and American doctors and nurses meet together. The German police and American military police cooperate. Along with these and other organizations, the schools have assumed their role by bringing the children, the teachers, and the parents of the two nations together.

In the Frankfurt Elementary School, American teachers and parents planned a program about America. This program, which made use of slides contributed by interested members of the PTA, brought together many Germans and Americans,

and I think portrayed American life more accurately than our movies usually do. The fact that more than 500 Germans attended the program was indicative of their interest. As one man remarked, "All of us cannot afford to go to America, and we don't have to because America is right here."

At later meetings American teachers gave demonstrations of the day's activities at different grade levels to small groups of German and American teachers and parents. Although the Germans didn't always agree with our way of doing things, they were genuinely interested, and, with the aid of interpreters, voiced their opinions in the discussion periods which followed. Now that we have taken the initiative, they are anxious to reciprocate, and there is a nucleus of interested people who will continue the association both as a group and on a personal basis.

## AN EXCHANGE PROGRAM

One of the most successful activities was the student exchange program with the German Goethe School of Offenbach. The children included in the exchange were from the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, since it was believed that younger children did not have sufficient knowledge of the language to make it a meaningful experience. The boys and girls attended all classes and participated in all activities in a regular school week, and in most cases were invited into homes and to social events. The students were enthusiastic about the program, and asserted that it helped them to learn more of the language and gave them a better understanding of the customs of the people. Most important, they established friendships.

"The German boys wanted to exchange coins and stamps," one of the American students wrote. "I traded with them and we had a lot of fun. On the last day the boys in my room and Larry and I went to see the 'Living Desert' in German. It was very interesting and I understood it very well."

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The author, who teaches English and social studies in the United States Army Elementary School in Frankfurt, Germany, here describes several projects involving American boys and girls and students from German schools.

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"I was invited to go to a German girl's house for lunch, and later to the leather museum and other places in Offenbach," another pupil commented. "After this, they came into Frankfurt with us on the trolley and we took them into the snack bar and bought them banana splits. They had never been in an American snack bar, or had a banana split before. Saturday, they came into Frankfurt and we went to the movies."

And a third American youngster said: "I found out that most of the German boys had just as much respect for Larry and me as they had for each other. They shook hands with us and were very polite. When we had to leave, the boys were all so sad that it almost made me want to stay there. I just hope their impressions of us were as good as ours were of them."

In their comments, the German children emphasized the differences between the two schools. Here is what several of them had to say:

"In our school is after two lessons a break, in the American school not. I mean that isn't good. At the first day I didn't know that, and I became hungrier and hungrier for I couldn't eat my bread. At last it was noon and I ate as much as I could."

"The school boys don't know a satchel. They have only a block of paper and write only with a pencil while we have copy-books and must write in ink. The American boys and girls make only a little homework. Well, this is fine. The teachers are the friends and advisors of the youth. I shall always remember this beautiful time. I hope that our exchange visit will contribute to the peace in all of the world."

"I am very grateful for this exchange, but I do not like some things. Every German girl does not like to see that the American girls come to school with red lips and red finger-nails. They will have enough time for it when they leave school."

"I like these boys and girls. They are all kind to us and I think we will make friends with them. At first I thought these people musn't learn so much as our people do, but that is wrong. They must work independently and so it seems at first that they didn't do much. In our school the

teacher tells always, while here the people tell more. I saw too that the teacher is more friendly with the children and that the children are more respectful with one another."

#### OTHER ACTIVITIES

During the Christmas season several German classes gave a concert of holiday music for our children, and stayed to watch our dramatization of the origin of "Silent Night." Our primary rhythm band made a great hit with the German youngsters in their school. Especially interesting was the informal Christmas party given for the American teachers by the German Holzhauses School, at which we sat around candle-lit tables exchanging traditions about Christmas in both lands.

We realized that through sports we could bring many of the children together, so plans were made for a joint program with two neighboring German schools. In the spring the German boys were instructed in softball by interested American teachers and students, with the help of the German gym teachers. It was difficult for the German boys to catch and throw a small ball, since they were accustomed to their own national game of fussball, which is the equivalent of American soccer. They also learned quickly that their "lederhosen" was not the most practical uniform for sliding home. Their enthusiasm, however, made up for their initial lack of skill. They soon learned the fundamentals and began playing with the American boys.

These are just a few of the activities carried out in one school system during the 1954-55 school year. Multiplied by the large number of schools in Germany, it is easy to see what an important role they are playing in promoting better understanding between the two nations. General Bulger, USAFE deputy chief of staff, in his opening speech at the conference of USAFE teachers said, "Germany is one of the most important countries in Europe and through the influence of teachers and parents of American school children, and through contacts of our children with German youngsters, valuable and lasting friendships can be made for America."

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"Awareness of the individual importance of man is our greatest achievement. It lies at the heart of the matter. Recognizing the significance of individual man, we have been able to mobilize and utilize the vast and still uncounted and uncountable resources of the human spirit." (Erwin G. Canham, Editor of *The Christian Science Monitor*.)

# Science and the Social Studies

Clark D. Moore

THE proof of a pudding, it is said, is in the eating. The George School History and Science Departments have been eating their own cooking with no major recipe changes for the past three years with no ill effects and with some interesting results.

The pudding referred to is a single course which attempts to take the place of both ninth grade general science and world history survey courses without losing any of the essential nourishment of either.

At first glance, this may seem to be rather an indigestible combination of ingredients. This would not be far from the truth if the conventional history and science courses had been involved. The history course usually starts with a chronological recording of events, dates, and men, beginning with the Ice Ages, and plods its way on through Egypt, Rome, the Middle Ages, and so on, and at year's end is in the neighborhood of World War I. The science course usually consists of a peek into as many branches of science as possible—and more. To combine two courses of this type would be meaningless if not impossible. The possibility of combination was visible only because of the unorthodox nature of one of these courses and of dissatisfaction with the other.

The social studies department had already veered from the "usual" in that the emphasis of its world history course was on the development of human institutions and the ideas behind them rather than on the mere nameplates these developments left hanging in the corridors of time. The science department, on the other hand, had long been dissatisfied with the disjointed aimlessness of its general science course, and sought to focus the smattering of various sciences on a central theme. This theme first presented itself under the narrow and overworked term, "conservation." As the idea ma-

tured, this term was broadened to include conservation of human as well as natural resources.

Impetus was given to the thinking of all concerned by the fact that incoming ninth graders had to elect either the social studies or science course. Neither department felt that any student should be denied the blessings of its particular course. Furthermore, it was discovered that a goodly number of students were electing that subject with which they were most familiar. This might increase their chance of academic success, but it hardly broadened their knowledge.

It was from these considerations then that the idea of combining the two courses developed. But before the combination could be executed many problems had to be solved. First, the common denominator, the focus of the combined course, had to be sharpened and crystalized. The social studies department was somewhat jealous of its established objectives and subject matter. It was obvious that time would not permit new ideas and material to be introduced without subtractions being made. Compromises were worked out accordingly, and the following set of objectives were set up for the single course which was originally titled "Our World."

1. To develop an awareness of and interest in existing world conditions.
2. To trace the development of the earth and its physical and human resources and try to answer the question, "How did the world get into the condition it is in today?"
3. To offer some demonstrated solutions to the problem raised.
4. To train youth in the use of intelligence in solving problems.
5. To assist students in undergirding their religious and spiritual values through the evidence of a plan for the universe and man's place in it.

The task of the social studies department, then, was twofold. First, we were to show how man conquered, and in general used or misused his environment, and how that affected his history. Second, we were to develop the story of man's relationship to his fellow men.

The less abstract job of the science department was to describe man's environment and to go into the more technical side of his uses and misuses of it.

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In this article, the author, who teaches social studies at George School (George School, Pennsylvania), describes an experiment with the integration of ninth grade social studies and general science courses.

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With the "what-to-teach" more or less firmly in mind, the "how-to-teach-it" presented real practical problems. It was generally agreed at the outset that the ideal situation would be for a single teacher to handle it as a single, uninterrupted course. Since no one at the time felt qualified for this, it was set up as a goal toward which to strive.

We made our beginning by dividing the course in half, one half in the hands of each of the two departments involved. The ninth grade was also divided into two groups. One half would begin the year with the social studies and the other with the science. At mid-year the two groups would exchange places.

In view of this divided setup there were obvious difficulties in getting across to the students the single course idea. Time proved that the concept of two separate and distinct courses—history and science—was too deeply rooted in the students' minds to be removed by a single course title and many references to "What you talked about last term." It became evident that the correlation existed more on paper than in the mind of the students. A block of a half year in each subject matter field was too long, we decided, for there to be much carry over of ideas.

We therefore shortened the blocks of time in each subject matter field to a hectic four weeks. This shifting back and forth of alternating groups between teachers of the two departments may possibly have increased the correlation of ideas, but it produced many undesirable results, including a certain amount of frustration in both students and teachers. By 1952-53, it seemed to be time to reach out and grasp boldly for what in the early days had seemed like a hazy, far off objective; the teaching of our idea as a single course by a single teacher.

The personnel situation at the school seemed to require that the four sections of the ninth grade be divided between the teachers of the history and science departments. The teachers involved bucked up their courage and used the summer to prepare to invade each other's subject matter field. Frequent conferences between history and science people during the school year proved to be helpful. It was generally recognized that those classes taught by the science teacher would have the emphasis on things scientific and vice-versa, but this was considered a small price to pay if we could get our big idea across.

The most time-consuming problem was, from the beginning, to organize a course to meet the specifications. For the scientific side there was

usable material. The science work could be centralized around a single text.

The organization of the history half of the course, however, presented considerable difficulty. We already felt that a school year was too short a time in which to consider the history of man, and now we were to have half the time for the job. We were loath to part with certain valuable concepts. It was felt, for example, that to divorce the work completely from chronology would not only deprive the student of a sense of security in the subject, but would also deny him of perhaps his only chance to gain some long-range historical perspective. Yet, to cover all the great developments since the dawn of time in half a year meant leaving some boggy spots in the road we were attempting to build. It was down this road we hoped the student could see civilization marching from the Mosaic Code, past the Emancipation Proclamation to the United Nations Charter.

Much that was traditional was discarded if it did not seem relevant to the core idea. If the student ended the course without knowing the Punic Wars from the Balfour Declaration, we were not to be disturbed as long as he was familiar with population pressures, hybrid vigor, and the difference between a language group and a race. We were not to be concerned if he did not know the order in which the Mesopotamian cultures rose and fell, as long as he understood why a once-fertile land is now barren.

But it was not our intention to develop an entirely materialistic or physical interpretation of history. The above emphases were made in order to buttress the scientific aspect of the course. In order to realize in the time available our particular objective, the value of human resources, further weeding had to be done. Hence, Solon became the most familiar Greek. Caesar and his accomplishments could not rate as much attention as Christ and His. The romantic paladins of the Middle Ages gave way to a consideration of the serf who had security of a sort at a price. The Declaration of the Rights of Man was to make more of an impression than the beheading of Marie Antoinette. Dumbarton Oaks and the San Francisco Conference would warrant more time than Pearl Harbor or Lend Lease. Thus, much that was traditional was lost, but we felt that more of real value was to be gained.

All of these difficulties had been rather academic. At first the lack of text material with the desired emphasis, and of ninth grade caliber, proved to be a very practical one. No single book met all the requirements. The ideal solution



would have been to write our own text. That still is an objective for future attainment.

But in order to get the course under way, less time consuming measures had to suffice. Hence, an outline of the course was worked out. On it, attached to the major headings and many of the minor ones, was a page reference in some available material. The standard ninth grade texts provided the backbone of the reading, but more advanced histories were included for the use of abler students. Specialized books on certain topics were listed along with magazine articles which illustrated a point or brought an idea up to date. This outline with references was mimeographed and given to the students as a work sheet.

Teaching a ninth grade class from a syllabus of this sort presented problems. Chief among these was the loss of a sense of continuity which a good text used straight through provides and

for which our syllabus proved to be an inadequate substitute. Jumping from one book to another with different styles, vocabularies, and emphases also served to confuse the student. We have now found a history text which is very adaptable to our objective. This used in conjunction with a science text and an outline of topics to tie things together seems to avoid the weaknesses of the syllabus, and works well under the one-teacher system.

These were and are some of the problems involved in preparing and presenting this new educational pudding. It has been on the table now for some time. Each time around we tinker a bit with its contents and techniques. As time passes and the scientist gains more confidence in history and the historian in science, the course is strengthened. In short, the course becomes more teachable and valuable each year.

### FIELD TRIPS

(Continued from page 122)

proof that a student has achieved an education rather than merely acquired a mass of uncoordinated and meaningless facts.

I have not meant to suggest that the whole of social education must be had through field experience. Practically, it is impossible. I have, however, meant to stress those kinds of experience through which students may develop some attachment to social reality. Once it is developed they may be more disposed to try to achieve some detachment from it. I think of attachment as "acquaintance with" and detachment as "knowledge about." Their inter-action is, in effect, the inter-action of practical experience and theory which constitute the reverse and obverse of the coin of social understanding.

Attachment and detachment may also be viewed as the romantic and the precise aspects, respectively, of the process of learning. The *places* visited and observed in field experience must be rendered romantic, otherwise they are only common-places. Then enters the precise aspect of field experience through which places become symbols for the social processes which are the ultimate concern of the social studies. For the romantic you may substitute *art*, and for precise you may substitute *science*. The former is an intensification of reality, the latter an abbreviation of it.<sup>6</sup>

In these terms—attachment and detachment and the romantic and the precise—I mean to

suggest the ways in which field and classroom experience supplement each other.

Finally, something may be said about what I would call the "residual values" of field experience. It permits students to become genuinely interested in their own education and promises much by way of their developing respect for their own work. This need not come at the cost of their having less respect for the work of others. Indeed it may enhance it.

I believe that field experience may make a direct and lasting contribution not only to the skills required by the method of inquiry but to the moral attributes which that method presupposes. These are integrity, patience, competence and humility. Of these, perhaps only competence lends itself to objective testing. But this fact makes integrity, patience and humility no less desirable personal achievements.

After all is said and done, social education offers no specifics however much we might wish that it did. (They are rare enough in the field of medicine.) Despite this fact we are under the constant obligation to specify, to the degree possible, what various modes of learning may accomplish. That is what we have sought to do in this discussion on some of the values of field experience.

<sup>6</sup> See Ernest Cassirer, *An Essay on Man*. Doubleday Anchor Books, 1953. p. 184.

# Monsieur Dannie's *Le Petit Niços*

Daniel Roselle

## SOME GOOD ADVICE

Nita was worrying about her *coiffure* in the mirror near the Blue Nude when Monsieur Charles, director of social services in the *quartier*, entered *Le Petit Niços*. She quickly patted a stray wisp in place and gave him the table next to Monsieur Dannie.

"*Bon jour*," said Monsieur Charles.

"*Bon jour*," answered Monsieur Dannie.

Monsieur Charles straightened his grey tie.

"And how are you finding your stay in Paris?" he asked, smiling.

"*Ca va*," said Monsieur Dannie. "I still have much to learn."

"Of course. The French are very complicated." "Yes."

Monsieur Charles tapped his fingers on the paper tablecloth.

"Very complicated," he repeated slowly. "Yet, if you follow some simple rules, you will get along fine."

"*Par exemple?*" asked Monsieur Dannie.

"Well, for example, clothes. You must lose your taste for American clothes, and dress more like a Frenchman. Your bow-tie, loafers, and light tweed suits make you too conspicuous."

"Too different?"

"Exactly. Wear darker, more conservative clothes and it will be hard for us to tell you apart."

"I see," said Monsieur Dannie.

"And your food," continued Monsieur Charles. "That is important too. Eat only French food and get used to drinking wine with your meals."

"Even if I prefer water?"

"Of course. You are in France now. Live like a Frenchman."

Monsieur Charles lighted a cigarette.

"Then there are the little things," he said. "Americans laugh too loudly. They speak English in the *metro*. And they race about all the time. It sets them apart."

"It makes us stand out too much?"

"Exactly."

Monsieur Charles leaned toward Monsieur Dannie.

"But most important of all," he said. "Always

remember that there is one thing a Frenchman will insist on."

"What is that?"

"Individuality!" said Monsieur Charles. "Individuality!"

## SECRET BALLOT

Monsieur Anddré, Madame Lobus, and the other regulars were having *dejeuner* at their tables near the painting of the Blue Nude, when Monsieur Dannie came into *Le Petit Niços* with an important announcement.

"My aunt has just arrived from Geneva on her way back to the States," he said. "She has only one night to spend in Paris and she wants us to show her the town."

"Anything special?" asked Monsieur Anddré.

"No, but she insists that it must be *real* French. She says that she knows that every American tourist goes to the *Folies-Berge*, but she wants to visit some place that *French* people would like to go—some place that you'd like."

"Quite interesting," said Monsieur Anddré.

"Any ideas?"

"A walk up to the butt of Montmartre, supper near the *place du Tertre*, and then the view of Paris from the terrace of *Sacré-Coeur*," suggested Monsieur Anddré.

Madame Lobus swept her fork sharply through her *salade de tomate* and leaned over towards Monsieur Dannie.

"I disagree," she said, firmly. "The *Comédie-Française* is almost the perfect answer. And tonight it's Molière's *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme*. *J'adore* Monsieur Jourdain!"

Monsieur Kénaché at table 3 carefully removed his eyeglasses.

"If a humble Egyptian may make a proposal," he said, "there are few things more exciting than a visit to the *Chansonniers* at the *Dix-Heures* for an evening of satirical songs and music."

"*D'accord*," agreed Monsieur Nilya, rubbing his mustache briskly, "but you are forgetting that this is Friday night and the sculpture galleries at the Louvre are lighted. Certainly that is worth seeing."

Madame Clere finished taking Monsieur

Dannie's order for an *omelette monégasque*, pointed her pencil thoughtfully towards the Blue Nude, and said:

"*Alors!* There is only one way to decide."

"How?" asked Monsieur Dannie.

"Secret ballot."

"Comment?"

"*Mais si!* Secret ballot!" insisted Madame Clere.

"That way we can be sure that no one will influence anyone else. Entendu?"

"Entendu."

"I'll give each of you a piece of paper," explained Madame Clere. "Write your choice on it." Whichever place receives the most votes, there is where we will take Monsieur Dannie's aunt tonight. *Voilà!*"

Then she distributed eight pieces of paper, waited briefly, and collected them again in Monsieur Jean's *béret*.

That evening—long after the results had shown that all eight had voted for the same place—Monsieur Dannie, his aunt from Geneva, and all the regulars from *Le Petit Niços* sat in the balcony at the *Folies-Bergeie* and enjoyed a real French show.

#### A WORK OF ART

"There may be a bit of Picasso in Monsieur Dannie," observed Monsieur Ménaché, twirling his eyeglasses above his *crème de marron*.

"Comment?" said Monsieur Nilya, who had just come into *Le Petit Niços*.

"It's too early to tell, of course," continued Monsieur Ménaché.

"Tell what?"

"Dannie's talent in art."

"*Tiens!* I did not even know that he was interested in art."

Monsieur Ménaché slowly sipped his glass of red wine.

"I just noticed it myself the other day," he said. "He was drawing at his table."

"Yes?"

"Not using colors yet. Much too soon for that."

"Of course. Very wise."

"And no human forms either. Just designs—straight line, box and curve."

Monsieur Ménaché calmly folded his hands on the table and looked closely at Monsieur Nilya.

"I could not understand it all," he continued.

"Naturally."

"Still, his work seemed to have some of the sweeping quality of Dufy."

"No!"

"And a little of Matisse's simplified design."

"*C'est formidable!*" cried Monsieur Nilya. "Has he been influenced any by Vlaminck?"

"Perhaps. But Madame Clere can tell you more about it," said Monsieur Ménaché, rising from his table.

Madame Clere came over quickly when Monsieur Nilya motioned excitedly to her.

"Tell me, Madame Clere," he said, leaning forward eagerly at his table. "How is Monsieur Dannie's art work coming along?"

"Fin!" said Madame Clere. "It was wise of Monsieur Ménaché to suggest the idea. Since Monsieur Dannie does not know the French words for his articles of laundry, he just hands in a laundry list with a drawing of each one. Now they can tell at once the number of shirts, shorts, and socks in his wash by looking at his pictures."

#### CLEAN SWEEP

"Was I right about Switzerland?" asked Monsieur Ménaché, tapping the ashes of his cigarette onto the floor of *Le Petit Niços*.

"Yes. You were right," answered Monsieur Dannie, nodding his head at Nita.

Nita hurried over to Monsieur Dannie's table and poured a Dubonnet until it ran over the top of the glass.

"*Eh bien*, did I tell you the truth?" she asked him, blotting the *apéritif* stream on the paper tablecloth with the palm of her hand.

"Yes. You told the truth."

The front door opened half-way and Monsieur André squeezed in.

"Give me a steak *tout de suite*," he called out. "I have been cleaning shoes all day and I am too tired and hungry to even wash up."

Then he turned to Monsieur Dannie.

"Welcome home!" he said, extending a brown-stained hand. "Was it like I said it would be?"

"Yes. It was like you said it would be."

Monsieur Nilya came out of Tante Louise's kitchen, licking cake creams off the tops of his fingers.

"*Tiens!*" he said to Monsieur Dannie. "Back so soon? Well, did I tell you. . . ."

"Stop!" cried Monsieur Dannie, rising to his feet. "I wish to make a statement!"

Monsieur Dannie looked solemnly about the room. Then in a loud voice he announced:

"Mesdames, Messieurs! To save time and prevent repetition, I hereby admit that everyone told me the truth. You were all absolutely correct. Switzerland is disgustingly clean!"

Then he sat down and buttered his bread with his sardine knife.

# Notes and News

Merrill F. Hartshorn

## The White House Conference

Most teachers have heard a great deal about the White House Conference on Education which was held in Washington, D.C., November 29-December 1, 1955. However, most of the publicity and writing about the White House Conference has centered on the discussions relating to problems of school finance. For social studies teachers, the report on Topic I, "What Should Our Schools Accomplish?" is of greatest interest and importance.

Although the alert social studies teacher will find nothing that is startling or new in the report, and may in fact find that some vital recommendations are missing, the report is significant for several reasons. First of all, it should be kept in mind that the report was drafted from a summary of the discussion of 1800 delegates to the White House Conference, two-thirds of whom were lay persons and one-third educators. This means that the recommendations have wide support outside the teaching profession. Secondly, the report is a reaffirmation of much that social studies teachers have been endeavoring to accomplish. In the third place, it is of special interest to note how much of this report deals with matters directly related to the social studies.

For these reasons it is important for social studies teachers to become acquainted with the recommendations in the report, to discuss the recommendations and their implications, and to accept the responsibility for carrying out those recommendations which, in the light of the best professional judgment, direct us toward a more vital social studies program.

The full report appears below.

### Topic I

#### WHAT SHOULD OUR SCHOOLS ACCOMPLISH?

The people of the United States have inherited a commitment, and have the responsibility to provide for all a full opportunity for a free public education regardless of physical, intellectual, social, or emotional differences, or of race, creed, or religion.

The fullest measure of local initiative and

control should be maintained, but no level of government (local, State, or national) should be relieved of its appropriate responsibility in fulfilling this commitment.

In groups where the private schools were discussed, there was a consensus that the right of the private school to exist, and of the right of parents to choose, and of children to attend, this is an accepted part of the American tradition of education.

We believe that education is necessary for the fullest development and enrichment of the individual.

The continued success of our democratic way of life requires that every individual be afforded that education necessary to enable him to make an intelligent choice and to effect necessary compromises on questions of public policy.

Education is a sound and necessary investment in the future well-being of our Nation and its citizens.

It is the consensus of these groups that the schools should continue to develop:

1. The fundamental skills of communication—reading, writing, spelling as well as other elements of effective oral and written expression; the arithmetical and mathematical skills, including problem solving. While schools are doing the best job in their history in teaching these skills, continuous improvement is desirable and necessary.
2. Appreciation for our democratic heritage.
3. Civic rights and responsibilities and knowledge of American institutions.
4. Respect and appreciation for human values and for the beliefs of others.
5. Ability to think and evaluate constructively and creatively.
6. Effective work habits and self-discipline.
7. Social competency as a contributing member of his family and community.
8. Ethical behavior based on a sense of moral and spiritual values.
9. Intellectual curiosity and eagerness for life-long learning.
10. Esthetic appreciation and self-expression in the arts.
11. Physical and mental health.



12. Wise use of time, including constructive leisure pursuits.
13. Understanding of the physical world and man's relation to it as represented through basic knowledge of the sciences.
14. An awareness of our relationships with the world community.

To achieve these things for every child the schools must have an effective program of guidance and counselling in preparation for the world of work.

In each school an appropriate balance must be maintained in the educational program to insure wholesome, all-around development of the individual with provision for the stimulation and development of the useful talents of all children, including the retarded, average, and gifted children.

So that they can better appreciate the advantages of our democratic way of life, students should be provided with a well-balanced course in the social sciences which includes the historical development of our constitutional form of government, and the contributions which various cultures have made to it.

All children should be free to seek the truth wherever it can be found.

The school must accept responsibility in determining its place in working in cooperation with appropriate community institutions and agencies toward enriching the lives of its students. It must help them apply ethical values which will guide their moral judgments and their conduct, and to develop the recognition that these values stem from, among other sources, their spiritual and religious convictions. On this latter point, more time is necessary for the development of a common viewpoint.

#### New challenges in Education:

Consideration must be given to the need for continuing growth and development in education at all levels in amount and scope, to keep up with the economic, social, and moral implications resulting from the advances in technology and science.

### Washington Summer Seminar

The "United States Government in Action" is the title of a five-week seminar in Washington, D.C., that is being sponsored jointly by the National Council for the Social Studies and the Travel Division of the National Education Association. The seminar will meet from June 25 to July 27. Participants may earn, if they desire, six

hours of academic credit through enrollment in one of the several cooperating colleges.

All Washington will be the seminar classroom. Visits will be made to government agencies where participants will see government in action. Government officials will explain the work of their agencies and answer questions. This will be followed by sessions that will be addressed by impartial observers such as columnists, newspaper reporters and scholars who will help the group appraise the work of the government agencies visited. The relationships between the federal government and state and local governments will be analyzed. The role of pressure groups and lobbies in Washington will be studied to determine their impact on federal government activities.

This unique summer program will be organized around eight topics: (1) The Role of the Federal City, (2) Making Federal Law, (3) Promoting the General Welfare, (4) Educating and Informing Citizens, (5) Safeguarding Our National Security, (6) Participating in World Affairs, (7) Pushing Back the Frontiers of Knowledge, and (8) Preserving and Extending Our National Heritage.

Throughout the seminar emphasis will be placed on holding meetings in government agencies. Participants will see their lawmakers in action on Capitol Hill. Foreign policy will be studied in the Department of State; problems of national defense will be analyzed in the Pentagon; law enforcement in the offices of the FBI and Department of Justice; agricultural problems will be examined at the Department of Agriculture; advances in scientific research will be presented at the National Institutes of Health and the Bureau of Standards.

The seminar will be further enriched by optional weekend trips to nearby historic points of interest such as Gettysburg, and Monticello.

The cost of the program will be approximately \$225 per person. This fee will cover housing in a new air-conditioned hotel, bus transportation to seminar activities, fees for special lectures, and five special event dinners. It does not include travel to and from Washington, meals while in Washington, or tuition fees to cooperating colleges.

For full information about the program, colleges cooperating that will give six hours of credit, or application forms for enrollment, write to the Travel Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

# Pamphlets and Government Publications

Manson Van B. Jennings

## Revised Editions

Two publications that should be of particular value to our readers date rather quickly but fortunately are revised periodically. *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials* (Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville 4, Tenn.: 1956. 244 p. \$1), now in its seventh edition, is probably the most useful bibliographical aid available. Few of the 3,833 entries cost more than 50 cents; 63 per cent of the titles are new or revised since the sixth edition was published; and 876 titles from the last edition have been eliminated because they are in short supply or out of date. Entries are classified by subject and are annotated to give an idea of content and usefulness.

The *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1955* (Supt. of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 1,064 p. \$3.50), now in its 76th edition, is the standard summary of statistics on the industrial, social, political, and economic organization of the United States. The *Abstract* is compiled and edited by the Bureau of the Census with the cooperation of some 77 government agencies and 53 private firms and research organizations which cooperate in furnishing statistics and reviewing the contents. We consider the *Abstract*, together with the *World Almanac*, two indispensable volumes that should be in every classroom where American history and contemporary problems are taught.

Not revised editions but rather companion volumes to the *Statistical Abstract* are *Historical Statistics of the United States, 1789-1945* (371 p. \$3.25) and its supplement, *Continuation to 1952 of Historical Statistics of the United States* (55 cents), both of which can be purchased through the Government Printing Office. Approximately 3,000 statistical time series are published in *Historical Statistics*, with most tables presenting annual figures that go back to the earliest year for which information is available.

## Freedom Agenda Pamphlets

The Carrie Chapman Catt Memorial Fund (164 Lexington Ave., New York 16), a research and education fund created by the League of Women Voters, received a grant from the Fund

for the Republic which made possible the inauguration of the Freedom Agenda Program. This program seeks to stimulate the development of local discussion groups concerned with the subject of individual liberty, and the role it plays in our system of constitutional democracy and representative government. The Freedom Agenda pamphlets have been written to assist these discussion groups, but include information, bibliographies, ideas, and suggested activities that should prove most helpful to secondary-school teachers.

*How to Organize a Freedom Agenda Project* (18 p. 10 cents) deals specifically with how to organize a local Freedom Agenda discussion group and therefore will have relatively less interest to teachers as such. *Let's Talk About Liberty—a Guide for Discussion Leaders* (32 p. 15 cents) is another pamphlet clearly focused upon the activities of Freedom Agenda discussion leaders, but it contains basic ideas and suggested readings that may be quite helpful to any teacher opening up a study of this subject. Those engaged in the study of individual liberty should be intrigued by a little introductory pamphlet, *Men Came to America to Be Free, But . . .* (20 p. 5 cents) which with clever cartoons high lights some of the basic problems in this area. Another discussion stimulator is *Discussion Cases* (22 p. 5 cents) which draws on the case method of learning by presenting several situations, each of which concludes with a question asking what you would do or think if you were involved in the specific case.

The remaining titles in the Freedom Agenda pamphlet series are subject-matter oriented and cost 25 cents each. Designed for adult readers, each consists primarily of an essay on a given subject, but concludes with discussion questions and suggested readings. The titles released at this writing include: *The Constitution and Congressional Investigating Committees* (60 p.), *The Constitution and Loyalty Programs* (53 p.), *The Bill of Rights and Our Individual Liberties* (46 p.), *Where Constitutional Liberty Came From* (49 p.), *Freedom of Speech and Press* (59 p.), and *Constitutional Liberty and Seditious Activity* (57 p.).

The Freedom Agenda pamphlets, however, are

not the only publications of the Carrie Chapman Catt Memorial Fund. Most of them have already been reviewed here, but two titles are of particular pertinence in this presidential-election year: *Choosing the President of the U. S. A.* (25 cents) and *The Role of Political Parties, U. S. A.* (25 cents). These should prove useful in senior high school social studies classes, and include not only the basic text with illustrative cartoons but also suggested discussion questions and readings.

### Economic Problems

When the American Assembly met at Arden House in Harriman, New York, in 1953 it focused on the subject of "Economic Security for Americans." Several research papers, reflecting a variety of points of view, were presented at that meeting and fortunately have been edited and made available to teachers as Part I of *A Teachers Guide to Economic Security for Americans* (NCSS: 123 p. \$1). Following the analysis of the problem, Part II consists of teaching aids developed by Lawrence Senesh and a group of teachers attending a workshop of the Joint Council on Economic Education. These aids cover everything from aims and initiatory activities to evaluation and instructional materials.

When the American Assembly met in May, 1955, its subject was "United States Agriculture: Perspectives and Prospects." Unfortunately, no relatively inexpensive teachers' resource unit makes available the findings of this session, but the background research papers together with the final report of the participants is available from the American Assembly (Box 24—Business, Columbia Univ., New York 27: 130 p. \$2).

"Crisis on the Farm" is a reprint of three articles by Robert G. Lewis in *The Progressive* magazine and is available for 15 cents from the Reprint Department of *The Progressive*, Madison, Wisconsin.

Few of us know very much about automation, but we're hearing a lot about it from labor, industry, and economists, and we'll be hearing a lot more about it in the years ahead. *Testimony on Automation* (Public Relations Services, Dept. 2-119, General Electric Company, One River Rd., Schenectady 5, N.Y.: 19 p. free) is the testimony of the president of the General Electric Company before a Congressional Committee. In this booklet automation is defined—though not all will agree with the definition—and the implications of automation to workers and society are discussed with particular reference to the experience

of the General Electric Company. Graphs, charts, and photographs dramatize and illuminate the text.

The testimony of General Electric's president, however, represents only a small portion of the hearings before the Subcommittee on Economic Stabilization of the Joint Committee on the Economic Report held in October, 1955. The text of the entire hearings is available under the title, *Automation and Technological Change* (Supt. of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 644 p. \$2).

Automation revives fears of technological unemployment; problems of economic security such as loss of income through illness, accident, old age, death, or unemployment of the breadwinner can often be mitigated by various insurance programs. But fundamental to our adjustment to automation and fundamental to the success of any private or governmental plan for social security is the continuing vitality of our economy. Can the Great Depression of the 1930's repeat itself? That is the question to which the Committee on Economic Policy of the Chamber of Commerce addresses itself in *Can We Depression-Proof Our Economy?* (Economic Research Department, U. S. Chamber of Commerce, Washington 6: 27 p. 50 cents). The answer is summed up in one sentence: "If we have the courage to avoid excessive booms and the wit to use what we know, there is reason to believe that future instability can be kept within fairly tolerable limits." Included in the report is an analysis of eight "built-in stabilizers" that are considered key factors in contributing to a depression-proof economy.

*Apprenticeship Past and Present* (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 34 p. 20 cents) has been so well received that it is now in its third edition. Beginning with the text of a 1640 contract for apprenticeship and concluding with an analysis of current Federal legislation affecting the apprentice, this little pamphlet has both historical and contemporary interest. Photographs of early contracts provide primary-source material that lends authenticity to this well written review.

*Economic Outlook* is a monthly eight-page leaflet edited by the Department of Education and Research of the C.I.O. (718 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6). Short articles and cartoons deal with economic issues of particular interest to labor. Individual copies may be purchased for 15 cents, or one may subscribe on an annual basis for \$1.50.

# Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

## Film of the Month

*Meat—From Range to Market.* 11 minutes; sale, \$50. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1125 Central Avenue, Wilmette, Illinois.

Did you know that about two-thirds of all cattle and sheep are raised west of the Mississippi, whereas two-thirds of all meat is consumed east of the Mississippi? This is but one of the facts contained in the new EBF film which offers an interesting insight into the production, processing, and distribution of our meat.

From range to corn belt to packing house disassembly line, the film shows how meat products go to market through interstate commerce, government inspection and skillful processing. Here is an effective overview of the meat industry suitable for upper elementary grade social studies and geography. Classes studying units on food and clothing will find it particularly useful.

Since meat animals depend on grass for three-quarters of all the food they eat, the film logically opens on the broad sweep of our western grasslands with its vast herds of animals. We then switch to the corn belt states and see our steaks on-the-hoof being fattened prior to slaughter. The camera next moves through a modern packing plant, recording in detail the conversion of livestock into fresh and cured meat and by-products. Here we see government inspectors at work. The sides of beef are chilled and graded for quality. A hog-cutting sequence shows the fascinating process by which hams, bacon, lard, and sausages are processed for the market. Laboratory work in development of by-products such as leather, soap, buttons, wool, and rugs is shown.

The film concludes with a sequence on the movement of meats by refrigerator trucks and railroad to the local butcher. Now the meats are cut and displayed and the ultimate consumer enters into the picture. The six and a half million people who work in this important industry justify their efforts as the meat graces our dinner tables.

Too often the only films on meat products have been produced by meat-packing companies who have special sausage to grind. This film is completely objective, proceeds in a logical fashion, and is factually correct and stimulating.

## Motion Pictures

Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1.

*Primary Safety: On the School Playground.* 11 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$55; color, \$100. Pete knows the right way to do things is the safe way, and there is a right way to swing, to play on the traveling rings, to see-saw, to play ball, and to slide.

*Primary Safety: In the School Building.* 11 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$55; color, \$100. A game of stop-and-go makes safety habits fun for the whole class and helps the children to learn good practices in the school building.

*Colonial Expansion of European Nations.* 13½ minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$68.75; color, \$125. A consideration of the forces which impelled large numbers of Europeans to settle in strange, unknown lands during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

*Rise of Nations in Europe.* 13½ minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$68.75; color, \$125. The pattern of national evolution is observed in France as representative of the European states which developed from feudal beginnings to highly centralized states in the seventeenth century.

McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd St., New York 36.

*Labor and Management Series.* Nine films produced by the National Film Board of Canada.

*The Grievance.* 30 minutes; sale, \$150. Illustrates the orderly processing of a grievance through several stages of negotiation between union and management, showing how the rights of a worker with a genuine grievance are protected under the union's contract.

*The Union Research Director.* 18 minutes; sale, \$90. We meet Cleve Kidd, United Steel Workers' research director, and from his words we learn what painstaking research, analysis of economic information and arrangement of argument lie behind union negotiations for better wages and working conditions.

*The Structure of Unions.* 11 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$50; color, \$110. A cartoon film which examines the organization of labor unions today. Examples are given to illustrate the functioning of a union at its various levels from the union local to the national body of the labor congress.

*Date of Birth.* 10 minutes; sale, \$60. A tribute to the older workers' high standard of dependability and productivity and a plea to employers to remove age barriers in hiring new staff.

*Shop Steward.* 22 minutes; sale, \$110. A dramatized presentation of the role of the shop steward in the effective day-to-day functioning of free trade unionism.

*Dues and the Union.* 17 minutes; sale, \$95. The significance of prompt dues payment and the services provided by them.

*Local 100.* 32 minutes; sale, \$145. The film relates the steps in the formation of a union. Also indicates a case study of collective bargaining.



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*Men at Work.* 27 minutes; sale, \$135. A story of men and machines and of the difficulty of adjusting everyone to the standardized needs of modern industry.

*"What Do You Think" Series.* Four new films in this popular series.

*Who's Running Things.* Six minutes; sale, \$37.50. After a leader is elected, can those who chose him justifiably override his authority? This is what the boys in a high school gym class want to know when their elected leader penalizes them for breaking the rules. The film audience is invited to decide who is right.

*Having Your Say.* Six minutes; sale, \$37.50. Are there circumstances in which one group may justifiably deny to another a chance to have its say at a public meeting when a question concerning both is at issue? The film shows a clash between a teen-age group and a community center committee.

*Getting What You're After.* Six minutes; sale, \$37.50. This film invites discussion of whether, in business competition, one's standards of fair play should be lowered.

*The Public's Business.* Six minutes; sale, \$37.50. Can a person in public office legitimately use his position for private gain? A practical teen-age situation sharpens the question.

*"See It Now" Series.* Five new films from the television program of Edward R. Murrow.

*Segregation in Schools.* 28 minutes; sale, \$112.50. The varied reactions of civic leaders, teachers, parents, and students from two southern states to the Supreme Court ruling against segregation in schools.

*National Security Versus Individual Rights.* 28 minutes; sale, \$112.50. Reviews the case of an Air Force Reserve officer who was declared a security risk because his father and sister had allegedly Communist affiliations.

*Peaceful Assembly and Free Speech.* 22 minutes; sale, \$112.50. The dramatic story of Civil Liberties on trial in Indianapolis where a group of citizens hoping to form a chapter of the American Civil Liberties Union were opposed by the American Legion.

*The Fifth Amendment and Free Speech.* 27 minutes; sale, \$112.50. Two college professors debate the proper use of the privilege inherent in this amendment.

*The Conduct of Congressional Investigations.* 26 minutes; sale, \$112.50. Congressional committees, their function, purpose, and the legal conduct of their investigations are analyzed in this film by three outstanding constitutional lawyers.

## Filmstrips

Audio-Visual Guide, 1630 Springfield Avenue, Maplewood, New Jersey.

*Alexander The Great.* Full-color filmstrip; sale, \$7.50. Based on the United Artists photoplay, this 55-frame filmstrip relates the highlights in the career of one of the great generals of history.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Illinois.

*The African Lion.* Set of six filmstrips in color; sale, \$36. This set of filmstrips is based upon the Disney motion picture. They are ideal for middle grade and secondary school geography classes. The titles are: "King of Beasts," "The King's Realm," "Life and Death on the African Plain," "Larger Animals of Africa," "Antelopes and Smaller African Animals," "Elephants in Africa."

Heritage Filmstrips, Inc., 89-11 63rd Drive, Rego Park 74, New York.

*Growth of Women's Rights.* Full-color filmstrip; sale, apply. Traces the rise of the women's rights movement in America, showing the progress in the area of political, social, and economic rights.

Visual Education Consultants, Inc., 2066 Helena St., Madison 4, Wisconsin.

*Colorado.* Sale, \$3.50. Portrays the history, ghost towns, topography, climate, agriculture, mining, and educational facilities of the state.

*The Bermuda Islands.* Sale, \$3.50. Tells of the discovery and history of the Islands, as well as presenting them as they are today.

*Ohio.* Sale, \$3.50. A survey which includes topography, cities, industries, agriculture, education, historical spots, and recreation facilities.

## Educational Television

During 1955 education by television became possible for some 39,000,000 Americans as the total of ETV stations expanded from eight telecasting 197 hours a week in 1954 to 18 on the air some 340 hours weekly in the past year.

According to the "Educational Television News," published by the National Citizens Committee for Educational Television, the prospects for 1956 are bright. Outlets are slated to begin operation in Denver and Memphis early in the year, and six other stations are under construction with on-the-air targets in 1956.

ETV stations average 20 hours per week on the air, and vary from Miami's five-hour weekly schedule to Pittsburgh's sixty-seven-and-one-half-hour program stint.

San Francisco and Pittsburgh ETV outlets are telecasting programs to help people from six to 60 with their reading problems. A college credit television course in "Reading in the Elementary School" originates from the North Carolina Woman's College at Greensboro.

The "Educational Television Newsletter" of the Committee on Television of the American Council on Education (December, 1955) lists 15 college credit courses on television offered by 13 colleges in various parts of the country.

## Of All Things

The Department of Audio-Visual Instruction (National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C.) has recently released a 140-page brochure entitled *A-V Centers In Colleges and Universities*. Prepared by the DAVI Committee on Buildings and Equipment, A. J. Foy Cross and Irene F. Cypher, Co-Chairmen, this publication treats the nature and functions of the AV Center, the housing of the material, special campus features, and case studies to show what is being done in such centers. The brochure costs \$1.50.

Dr. Elizabeth Pilant, National Conference American Folklore for Youth (Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana) writes us that there are still copies of the McKee Map of American Folklore available at 50 cents per copy. This is a wall-sized, gaily colored, picture map of the United States portraying over 100 folk characters of our nation. My personal copy hangs over my desk and it makes not only an attractive decoration, but it is a stimulating source of reference. Over 140,000 of these maps are in use in schools and libraries. If you do not have a copy, order one from Dr. Pilant at the above address.

Write to the Educational Film Library Association (345 East 46th St., New York 17) for a copy of "Films and People," a full description and appraisal of selected films on United Nations and UNESCO topics. A copy will cost 50 cents. For \$1, one may get a copy of "Films for International Understanding," a selected list of about 250 films.

## Helpful Articles

Anderson, R. "Television in the Schools." *The School Executive*. 75: 87-89, January 1956. A review of the ways in which schools are using television for better public relations.

Bateman, C. "The Magnetic Map." *The Journal of Geography*. 54: 455-456, December 1955. A device for showing the movement of pressure areas over the face of a map.

Dillon, R. "Myriads of Maps." *The Social Studies*. 46: 291-294, December 1955. A brief history of the development of the map.

Fish, K. L. "Tips On Tape." *Scholastic Teacher*. 65: 10, January 5, 1956. How one class used the tape recorder during a study of the nature of fascism.

Morehead, H. "Television and Learning." *Educational Leadership*. 13: 167-171, December 1955. Discusses four important issues raised by the introduction of television as a major instrument of education.

Wittich, W. "Children Learn Better Through Films." *The Nation's Schools*. 57: 90-94, January 1956. A summary of the values of film use as indicated by research.

# Notes on Books

Focus: World History

Edward T. Ladd

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## A Book for the Department Library

A HISTORY OF CIVILIZATION. By Crane Brinton, John B. Christopher, and Robert Lee Wolff. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Two vols., 686 p., 722 p. \$16.00 per boxed set.

The special interest attached to this general text on Western civilization lies in the method which three top-flight scholars have deliberately employed to present the approach and the results of modern historical study on an elementary level. Professors Brinton and Wolff of Harvard University and Christopher of the University of Rochester have collaborated in a work that is organized less around the facts of the historical process than around the substantive problem of what these facts add up to for each major period and the procedural problems of how to transmit a feeling for the inner meanings of the facts to the novice in history.

The authors have adopted, in the main, two distinctive methods to carry out these aims. First, they have tended to write history as a connected series of analytical essays which group the events and ideas of each age under large questions which should be interesting and comprehensible to any literate inquirer located in twentieth-century America. Why did the Jews persist? How modern was the Renaissance? How "classical" was seventeenth-century culture? This kind of question is particularly prominent in the first volume, which runs from pre-history to 1715. In the second volume, which moves at a more leisurely pace from 1715 to the present, the analytical approach is much less marked, since there is more space for the recounting of the facts and since the facts themselves have an obvious present relevance. Secondly, the authors have tried to compensate for the generalizing tendency of this approach by the liberal employment of contemporary quotations (appropriately footnoted), personality sketches, present analogies, and similar selective devices designed to give the student a feeling for the general tone of the era in question and an understanding of the people who lived in it.

The combination of general interpretations and specific illustrations affords a welcome change from the customary even pace of descriptive history. There are occasions in these volumes when the writers lean over too far in their endeavor to make their interpretations easily understandable by the beginning college student and strike a note that can only be described as condescension—e.g. on the French Reformation, "... the (French) intellectual classes have long been serious-minded, and not at all as common opinion conceives Frenchmen, gay and irresponsible. . . ." (I, 506)—but in general Professors Brinton, Christopher, and Wolff have undoubtedly struck out in the direction that history text books will have to take.

The chief difficulty which the book raises is that it has innovated too little rather than too much. The scope of the work lacks the boldness of its methods. It is not "a history of civilization," nor does the prefatory explanation that Western civilization is "the main stream" make it one. It is indeed little more than what is commonly known as the history of Western or contemporary civilization, with a brief introduction on pre-historical and pre-classical Near Eastern cultures which are discussed primarily as pre-natal influences upon the West. Now the point here is not simply that of a mis-leading title. The point is rather that the questions which our generation is beginning to ask of the history of civilization require a base that is broader than the West. The value, in the work under review, of the two excellent chapters on Byzantium—the only ones which transcend the customary scope of such texts—whets the appetite for further excursions along this path. These volumes are to be welcomed as a response to the current quest for the meaning of history, and now that this approach has been tried on the historical area with which we are already somewhat familiar it may perhaps be extended to those areas with which we should become familiar.

LEONARD KRIEGER

Department of History  
Yale University

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## Books to Use in Teaching

**A HISTORY OF THE WORLD.** By Alice Magenis and John C. Appel. New York: American Book Company, 1955. 590 p. \$2.40.

This high school text by a high school teacher and a professor of social studies has a number of features that should make it not only useful but also popular in the classroom. The book is written in the first person plural and addresses the reader in the second person. Consequently, the student should feel an intimacy to the authors. The volume is profusely illustrated and adds real-life vividness to the reading of it. The writers have wisely placed at the beginning of the text interesting colored pictures depicting the panorama of world history to whet the student's appetite.

The book is divided into 12 units, which, in turn, are divided into chapters varying in number from two to six. Nearly one-half of the text is devoted to the years from the American and French revolutions to the truce in Korea. Each of the units has an introduction that describes briefly the material to be covered in the particular unit and at the end of each there is a brief resume which includes "Milestones Toward Democracy" and "Milestones of Living." The text contains a number of other study aids in addition to a fairly complete list of supplemental reading located at the conclusion of each unit.

The text places emphases on mankind's struggle toward a clearer spiritual understanding, a higher culture and a more democratic way of life with the wars being briefly mentioned. In this reviewer's opinion, the book's chief weakness lies in its tendency to over-simplify events. Also more space should have been devoted to the post World War II period and the unusual and humanitarian way in which America has treated its vanquished enemies. However, a qualified and conscientious teacher should not experience too great a difficulty in adding more substance to the events described.

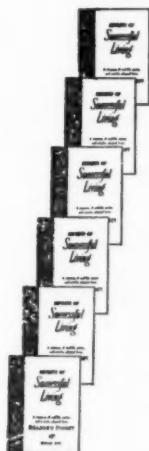
*A History of the World* is a very readable and, on the whole, a well-balanced text that recognizes the fact that the challenge that confronts our society today is a moral one rather than a physical one. It also succeeds in pointing out the fact that history is not a dead hand laid on the present but is the womb from which the present has come forth.

JOHN C. MATLON

95th Military Government Group  
Camp Gordon, Georgia



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Reader's Digest

EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT

Pleasantville

New York

Teaching about the world's religions should be made a good deal more effective with the recent appearance in paperback editions of many of the scriptures of the religions less well known to Americans. The most recent such book to come our way is *The Teachings of the Compassionate Buddha* (New American Library, Mentor, 50¢), the fifth in that particular series of "religious classics."

**LIVING TOGETHER AT HOME AND AT SCHOOL.** By Prudence Cutright, W. W. Charters, and Mae Knight Clark. New York: Macmillan, rev. ed., 1953. 181 p. \$1.80.

**LIVING TOGETHER IN TOWN AND COUNTRY.** By Prudence Cutright, W. W. Charters, and Mae Knight Clark. New York: Macmillan, rev. ed., 1953. 241 p. \$1.92.

**LIVING TOGETHER AROUND THE WORLD.** By Prudence Cutright, W. W. Charters, and Mae Knight Clark. New York: Macmillan, 1953. 280 p. \$2.72.

**LIVING TOGETHER IN THE AMERICAS.** By Prudence Cutright, W. W. Charters, Allen Y. King, Ida Dennis, and Florence Potter. New York: Macmillan, 1953. 502 p. \$3.68.

**LIVING TOGETHER IN THE OLD WORLD.** By Prudence Cutright, W. W. Charters, and Walter Lefferts. New York: Macmillan, 1953. 478 p. \$3.68.

The senior authors have both had a wide variety of experience as teacher, principal, superintendent and college professor. Dr. Prudence Cutright is now professor of education at Macalester College, St. Paul, Minnesota. Dr. Werrett Wallace Charters, before his retirement, was Director of the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University.

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DERTHIA WHITSON

Mobile County (Alabama)  
Public Schools

## On the Intellectual Frontier

A PREFACE TO HISTORY. By Carl G. Gustavson.  
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1955.  
222 p. \$3.75.

This book is an interesting attempt to teach the historical approach by describing certain general topics such as the relevancy of the past to the present, the influence of social factors in creating basic patterns, and the significance of change and continuity in historical phenomena. The fifteen chapters in this book are designed to parallel successive periods studied in modern European history. Each chapter treats a particular aspect of historical development with numerous illustrations of the major theme taken from some specific period. For example, the chapter on causation is illustrated by events of the age of the Reformation, and the chapter on revolution is explained by numerous references to French history in the period 1789-1799. The text is followed by brief bibliographical notes and an index.

The author believes that the mastery of historical concepts and generalizations will provide a more effective understanding of contemporary politics. He further points out that historians as a group possess a common fund of wisdom derived from their subject which is potentially valuable to a great number of students who, although they will never use history professionally, will find that a knowledge of the historian's reasoning will contribute to better citizenship.

Professor Gustavson writes in a clear and emphatic style, and his material is well-organized. His pedagogical approach to history is an unusual one and deserving of careful consideration. Students and teachers alike will find this volume intellectually stimulating and provocative.

BERNERD C. WEBER

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### Other Books to Know About

**HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL WEB.** By August C. Krey. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1955. 269 p. \$4.00.

Professor Krey, recently retired from the University of Minnesota, has drawn together, with some revision, 12 essays published in a variety of journals during the past third of a century. Directed to general students of history rather than specialists, the essays urge and illustrate the unity of all human experience, and particularly the inter-relationships of medieval and modern—including American—history.

Part One, "The Long Road Back," after describing the sorry state of western Europe as "A Society without Education" in the earlier Middle Ages, traces the re-development of law, the medical profession, scholarship, and art during the later medieval period. The eight essays, drawing on Mr. Krey's many years of research and teaching in medieval history, range over social and cultural changes during some ten centuries. They include one on Urban's Crusade, one on the historian, William of Tyre, and one on Florence, "A City That Art Built."

Part Two, "The Social Web: World-Wide and

Time-Deep," reflects in some measure Mr. Krey's long interest in the teaching of history and his experience as chairman of the American Historical Association's Commission on the Social Studies. Over-specialization, by periods, by aspects of human experience, or on national lines violates the "social web" and obscures the meanings that citizens in the present need to derive from study of the past. Newer disciplines help, but "statistics, however related and correlated, explain nothing; they merely describe, and describe only the material and obvious" (p. 200). And "progress in social science is proportional to the fullness and accuracy of the knowledge of the past, and social progress is dependent upon the extent to which this knowledge is shared by all the people" (p. 254).

The essays are positive but not militant; scholarly but not ponderous. They will reward teachers who can read and consider their interpretations of history and their view of the role of history in developing social understanding.

ERLING M. HUNT

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**FREEDOM AND COMPULSION: A SURVEY OF EUROPEAN HISTORY BETWEEN 1789 AND 1939.** By Michael C. Morgan. London: Edward Arnold, and New York: St. Martin's Press, 1954. 344 p. \$3.50.

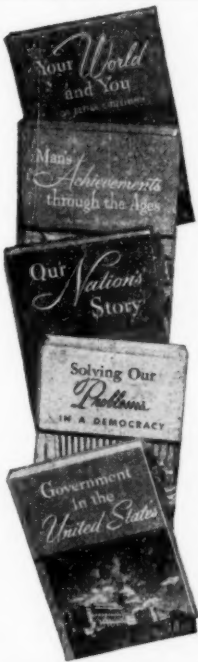
**EUROPE AND AMERICA SINCE 1492: WESTERN CIVILIZATION AND ITS WORLD INFLUENCE.** By Geoffrey Bruun and Henry Steele Commager. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1954. 907 p. \$6.75.

These two textbooks illuminate two conceptions of the nature of history. Michael C. Morgan, senior history master at Cheltenham College, an English secondary school, concerns himself with exhibiting the changes effected in France and Europe by the French Revolution and Napoleon, and their consequences from 1815 to 1939. Morgan's Europe omits the British Isles; his survey of European history amounts to a political history of the major powers of continental Europe, with an intercalary chapter entitled "The Economic Revolution," which includes three pages on science and technology. To the Americans Bruun and Commager, the former known for his writings on modern Europe, the latter for his publications on United States History, the theme is inclusive, as the title indicates. Approaching a world history in geographical scope, with chapters on Asia as well as the Americas, their book includes exceptionally full treatment of the arts and sciences, literature, religion, demography, and economic change.

The British volume contains eight good conventional maps; for the same time period the American text includes over two dozen maps, five graphs, and over 50 pictures. It is a good example of the current trend in this country toward sumptuous textbooks, eye-appealing, comprehensive in coverage, and forced to adopt a two-column format to forestall classification according to tonnage, like steamships.

One touchstone among many for any modern history is the treatment of the great recent catastrophes of our civilization. Concerning the origins of World War I, Bruun and Commager attempt to correlate domestic and foreign relations from 1871 to 1914, while Morgan limits himself largely to a recital of the major events in diplomacy. In dealing with the war itself it would be inaccurate to say that Morgan wholly ignores the political, economic, social, and morale factors, the innovations in weapons and tactics, or the global implications, but Bruun and Commager give them explicit attention. Neither book ignores the effect of the economic depression of the 1930's upon international affairs, though





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both treat this as part of the domestic history of the age, and similarly in neither book does the origin of World War II receive analysis by itself but only as an aspect of separate national histories. Both books reveal something of the problem confronting every author of a synoptic treatment of modern times.

Bruun and Commager have written an encyclopedic account of some five centuries of world history in an even, fluent, vigorous style. In his compact treatment of a shorter period of time, Morgan shows a flair for capsulated images, for example sketching Cavour as "a chunky, sardonic little man with a remarkable personal resemblance to Mr. Pickwick."

At the end of his story, Morgan justifies the planetary outlook of Bruun and Commager by recognizing that Europe no longer determines its own future. "Europe is no longer as powerful as it was but its values have spread all over the world." Among these values, at a time when former empires are in a state of dissolution, Morgan discerns national pride, some degree of cooperation among the nations, and the persistence of longings for liberty. Optimistically, both books embody a rational (i.e., anti-anti-intellectual) outlook and, although rejecting some un-

realistic vagaries of liberalism, a liberal scale of values. Bruun and Commager conclude: "The condition of modern humanity measured against its condition in any known period of the past, gives no warrant for despair. Never before has the future of mankind been so rich with possibilities for unimaginable progress."

HARRY J. MARKS

Department of History  
University of Connecticut

SOCIAL THOUGHT FROM HAMMURABI TO COMTE.  
By Rollin Chambliss. New York: The Dryden Press, 1954. 456 p. \$5.00.

Rollin Chambliss, who teaches at the University of Georgia, has essayed a history of social thought from Hammurabi to Comte—a brave undertaking when one considers the difficulties of defining "social thought." Chambliss has used a broad framework of definition, with the result that his sections on the ancient societies include complete accounts of those societies and their economic, political, and cultural institutions; his Greek, Roman and Medieval section is built around five philosophers; his modern around movements and ideas. The changes in tempo are

not necessarily displeasing, although they do leave the reader wondering what social thought is.

The book is designed as a textbook for college students. If we think of a text as a well-stocked reservoir of materials, this one hardly qualifies. To bring unity out of the masses of materials he confronted, the author has selected the ideas that have "lived and developed." But even there he has not tried to exhaust each, preferring instead to summarize a few leading aspects in the hope that the student will turn to the originals inspired by more bravery. What seems to emerge is a kind of ideas-in-context effort. Where the historian of philosophy or of political thought ordinarily emphasizes the content of what Aristotle, for example, wrote, Chambliss has looked at him with the eye of the political scientist, anthropologist, economist, biographer and several other callings. What we have long been familiar with in the *Ethics* is now seen against a living, moving, and breathing ancient Hellas, and the *Politics* becomes a kind of contemporaneous pamphleteering.

Not a bad thing to do to formidable classics, to make them sound as though their authors were not always conscious that they were writing for eternity. What is more, Chambliss has tried to maintain simplicity through the use of plain language. The student should not find the going too forbidding.

There are other features that recommend the book. The Chinese and Arabic classics have found room for co-existence here, and it is a peaceful kind which illustrates the kinship between Eastern and Western thought which we have always insisted was a fact. Nor has Chambliss trembled at introducing secondary commentators when their comments seemed useful in clearing up ideas.

This reviewer believes that other, more tightly-knit histories of world social thought have not been ruled aside by this one, but until the Parringtons and the Curtis of the larger arena come along, he is grateful for efforts such as this.

GERALD L. STEIBEL

Radio Free Europe  
New York City

The Colvins, Minna and Woolf, offer a cloth edition of their *Geography in Our Modern World* (Cambridge). This comprehensive text is short on illustrations. Strange, to say the least, at a time when such books are literally "picture-text" in content. Emphasis is on world history

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(J. W. E. in the New York City *A. T. S. S. Bulletin*)

## Publications Received

- Dunn, Joan. *Retreat from Learning*. New York: McKay Co., Inc., 1955. xvi + 224 p. \$3.00.
- Eaton, Stewart C. *The Heritage of the Past: From the Earliest Times to the Close of the Middle Ages*. New York: Rinehart, 1955. xx + 795 p. \$6.00.
- Hofstadter, Richard. *The Age of Reform: From Bryan to F. D. R.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955. xxviii + 328 p. \$4.50.
- Humphrey, Don D. *American Imports*. New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1955. xviii + 545 p. \$6.00.
- Ingram, Kenneth. *History of the Cold War*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. 239 p. \$5.00.
- Ketchum, Richard M. *What Is Communism?* New York: E. P. Dutton, 1955. 191 p. \$2.95.
- Lane, Howard and Beauchamp, Mary. *Human Relations in Teaching*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955. ix + 352 p. \$3.96.
- Lippmann, Walter. *The Public Philosophy*. Boston, Mass.: Little, Brown and Company, 1955. xiii + 189 p. \$3.00.

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